

A

MANUAL OF BOTANY

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VOL. I

MORPHOLOGY AND ANATOMY



BASED UPON THE MANUAL OF THE LATE PROFESSOR BENTLEY

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PREFACE

THIS Manual is intended to take the place of the 'Manual of Botany' written by the late PROFESSOR BENTLEY. Indeed, it was originally contemplated that it should appear as the sixth edition of that work. The chapters on Morphology have been altered only so far as has been necessary in order to incorporate in them the modifications of the older views, which are based upon recent scientific investigations.

While the preparation of this section was in progress the death of PROFESSOR BENTLEY led to considerable alterations in the mode of treatment of the remainder of the book. The subject of the anatomy of plants has been separated from that of morphology and made a separate section. This has been almost entirely rewritten and enlarged, and numerous figures have been added. Many of these are original, others have been borrowed from the writings of contemporary authors.

The old volume being rather too bulky for convenient handling, it has been considered desirable that the present edition shall consist of two parts. In the first of these the subjects of morphology and anatomy of vegetative parts are dealt with, the second will treat of classification and vegetable physiology.

J. REYNOLDS GREEN.

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MANUAL OF BOTANY.



GENERAL INTRODUCTION.

THE various bodies which are situated on the surface of the earth, or combined so as to form its substance, are naturally arranged, both by the common observer and scientific investigator, in three great divisions, called, respectively, the Animal, Vegetable, and Mineral Kingdoms, and as those comprised in the two former are possessed of life, they form the Organic creation, while those of the latter, not being endowed with life, constitute the Inorganic creation. It is our province in this work to treat of the lower members of the organic world, called Plants or Vegetables. The science which has this for its object is termed Botany, from the Greek word *βοτάνη*, signifying herb or grass.

DEPARTMENTS OF BOTANY.—Botany in its extended sense embraces everything that has reference to plants, either in a living or fossil state. It investigates their nature, their internal structure, their outward forms; the laws by which they are enabled to grow and propagate themselves, and their relations to one another, and to the other bodies by which they are surrounded. As a science, therefore, it is of vast extent, and one which requires for its successful prosecution the most careful and systematic study. We may divide it into several departments, which can be examined separately. We may regard especially the peculiarities of outward form which plants present, some of extreme simplicity and of microscopic dimensions, globular or cylindrical in shape, and consisting of only a single vegetable cell, with no differentiation of parts, others strings of cells, others flat plates, others of considerable substance, showing various parts, each with its own individuality. Such a section of the subject is known as Morphology. We may again study

the organism from the point of view of its internal structure, without reference to its form. We deal in this connection with structural units of plants, the vegetable cell as an individual, and the combinations of cells to form the filaments, plates, or masses of which the plant consists, tracing the various modifications of cell structure, the alterations in their forms, and the ways in which they are arranged together in the various parts of the organism. This forms the department of Vegetable Anatomy or Histology. Again, we may look upon the plant as a living organism, and study the way in which it carries out the various processes of its life, and the way in which it reacts to its environment. This section is known as Vegetable Physiology. Another department is Taxonomy, which considers plants in their relationship to each other, and includes a knowledge of the principles upon which they may be classified. This is generally known as Systematic Botany. Geographical Botany, again, deals with the distribution of plants over the surface of the earth at the present time, and investigates the causes of such distribution. Palaeophytography, or Fossil Botany, considers the nature and distribution of plants through the past ages of the earth's existence, and describes the structure of those found in a fossil state in the different strata of which the earth is composed. The first four departments only are those that come within the scope of the present work, the latter two being of too special and extensive a nature to be treated of in this Manual. There are also several sections of what may be called Applied Botany, which are founded on a knowledge of the above departments, such as Descriptive Botany, Vegetable Materia Medica, Agricultural, Horticultural, and Economic Botany. To these special works are commonly devoted, but, so far as the Properties and Uses of Plants are concerned, they will be particularly referred to in this work under the head of Systematic Botany.

BOOK 1

MORPHOLOGICAL BOTANY.

CHAPTER I

GENERAL MORPHOLOGY OF THE PLANT

THE simplest plants, such as the Red Snow (*Protococcus*), or *Glæocapsa*, consist of a single membranous sac, or *cell* as it is termed, which in form is more or less spherical or oval. In *Protococcus* (fig. 1) the cells separate almost as soon as formed, while in *Glæocapsa* they remain bound together by an enveloping capsule of gelatinous matter, formed from the cell-wall, for a longer or shorter period. In plants immediately above these

FIG 1



FIG 2



Fig 1 Several Red Snow plants (*Protococcus* (*Palmella*) *nivalis*), magnified
Fig 2 Two plants of *Oscillatoria spiralis*

in point of complexity we find the cells still all alike, but instead of being separated and each forming a distinct plant, they are joined end to end and form a many-celled filament which is either straight or variously curved, as in *Oscillatoria* (fig. 2). All these plants—so far at least as is known—multiply by division of their cells only, but a little higher in the scale we meet with plants in which certain of their cells perform the function of nutrition, while others are set apart for the purpose of reproduction. Thus, in the Moulds, such as *Mucor* (fig. 3), or *Penicillium* (fig 4), the cells which serve as organs of nutrition are elongated simple or branched filaments, termed *hyphae*,

which lie upon the surface of the substance furnishing the plants with food, while those destined to reproduce the individual are developed in globular cavities (*sporangia*), as in *Mucor* (fig. 3), or are arranged in necklace-like branches at the end of special filaments, as in *Penicillium* (fig. 4)

Yet a little higher in the scale of vegetable life we find the cells so combined as to form leaf-like expansions (fig. 5), or solid axes (fig. 6), as well as special organs of reproduction (fig. 5, *t*, *t*). But these cells are all

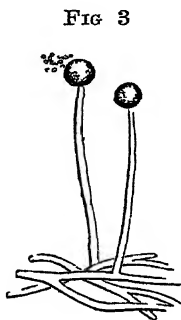


FIG 3

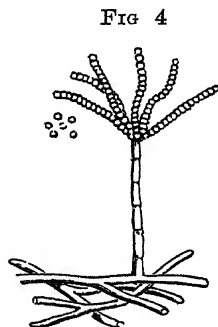


FIG 4

Fig 3 A species of Mould (*Mucor*), with branched mycelium (*hyphal tissue* or *hyphae*) below, from which two stalks are seen to arise, each of which is terminated by a sac (*sporangium* or *ascus*), from which a number of minute bodies (*spores*) are escaping — Fig 4 Another Mould (*Penicillium glaucum*), with branched mycelium (*hyphal tissue*), and a stalk bearing several rows of cells which are the spores (*conidia*)

FIG 5

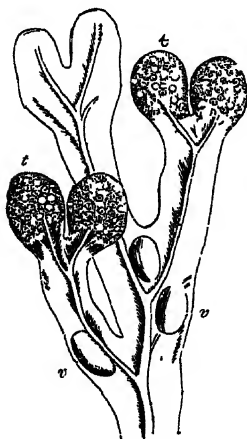


Fig 5 Thallus or thallome of the common Bladder Seaweed (*Fucus vesiculosus*) *t*, *t* The fructification *v*, *v* Bladders of air

FIG 6

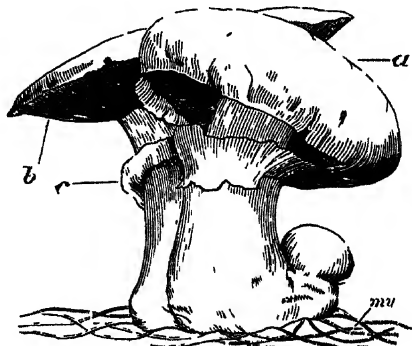


Fig 6 The common Mushroom (*Agaricus campestris*) There are three receptacles (*fructification*), arising from the mycelium, *my*, below one young and nearly globular, and two mature. *a*. Pileus *b* Lamellæ *c* Annulus

more or less alike, so that no true distinction can be drawn between the often very different-looking parts we meet with in such plants as a seaweed or a mushroom. Such a combination of similar cells, whatever the precise form may be, which presents no differentiation of leaf and stem, is called a *thallus* or *thallome*, and every thallus-producing plant is therefore termed a *Thallophyte*. Under the head of Thallophytes we comprise all those simpler forms of plants which are commonly known as Algæ and Fungi.

Again, as all Thallophytes are composed of cells which approach more or less closely to the spherical or oval form, or if

FIG 7

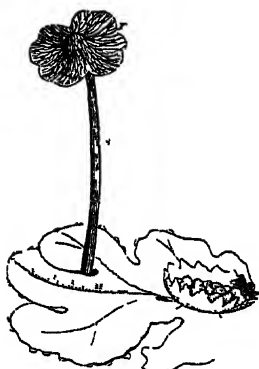


FIG 8



Fig 7 A portion of the flat thallus like stem of *Maclantra polymorpha*, showing an antheridial receptacle, *r*, supported on a stalk, *s* — Fig 8 *Jungermannia bidentata*. The stem is creeping, and bears numerous small imbricated leaves.

elongated are thin-walled and commonly flexible, they are also termed *Cellular Plants*, in contradistinction to those above them in order of development, which are called *Vascular Plants*, on account of their commonly possessing, in addition to these cells, which are termed *parenchymatous*, elongated generally thick-walled cells, called *prosenchymatous* cells or fibres; and also, in most cases, except in the intermediate orders of Liverworts and Mosses, variously formed tubular organs which are known under the name of vessels.

From the Thallophytes, by various intermediate stages, through an order of plants called Liverworts, we arrive at another group—the Mosses. In the lower forms of the Liverworts,

e.g. *Marchantia* (fig 7), we have a green flat thallus-like stem bearing upon its under-surface scale-like appendages, the first

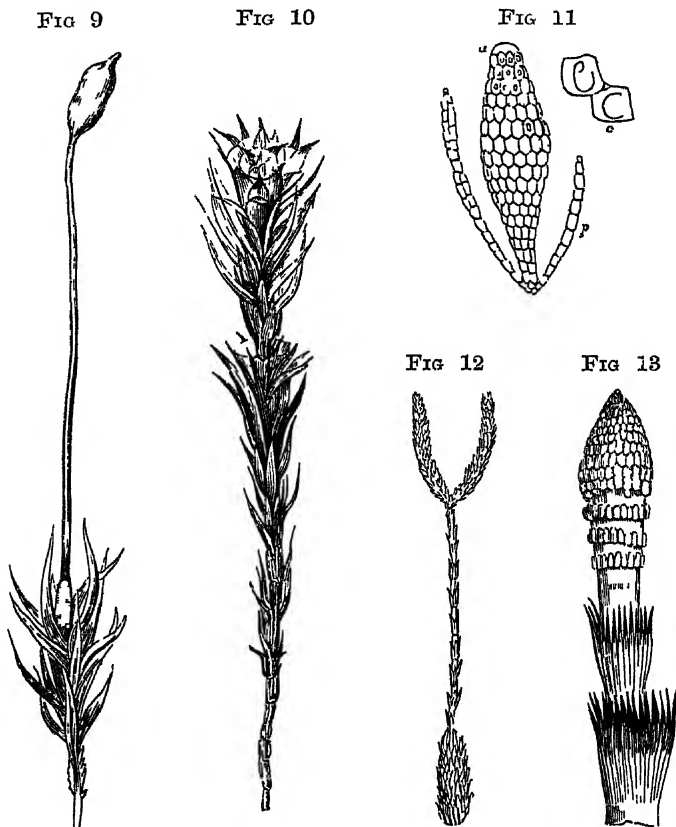


Fig 9 Plant of the Hair-moss (*Polytrichum commune*), with leaves, stem, and sporogonium — Fig 10 Plant of the same, with stem and leaves, and terminated by the male organs (antheridia) — Fig 11 Antheridium, *a*, of the Hair-moss (*Polytrichum*), containing a number of cells, *c*, in each of which there is a single antherozoid *p* Paraphyses, surrounding the antheridium — Fig 12 The common Club-moss (*Lycopodium clavatum*) — Fig 13 Termination of fertile branch of the Great Water Horsetail (*Equisetum maritimum*)

representatives of true leaves. In the higher forms, as *Jungfermannia* (fig 8), the stems and leaves are both more highly

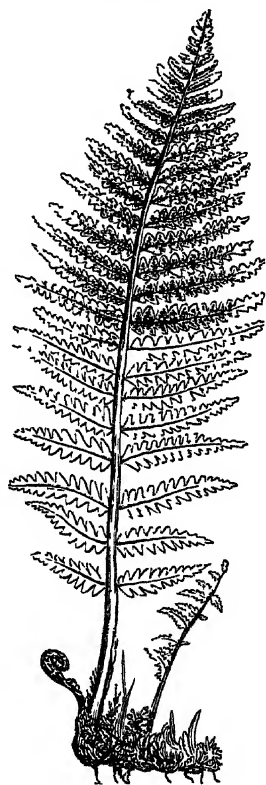
developed. In the Mosses, e.g. *Polytrichum* (figs 9 and 10), the stems often contain elongated cells, which are to a certain extent thickened, and differ little from the true wood-cells met with in the more highly developed plants. Correlated with this greater development of the organs of nutrition we find the reproductive apparatus similarly advanced in complexity of structure, as will be hereafter described.

The Liverworts and Mosses are, however, destitute of vessels, such as exist in the next and all the higher groups of plants. Their roots are very rudimentary.

Still ascending, we find in the Ferns (fig 14), Horsetails (fig 13), Pepperworts, Club-mosses (fig 12), and Selaginellas, a continued advancement in complexity of structure, vessels of different kinds make their appearance for the first time, and the stems are frequently of considerable size and height. *Calamites*, an order of plants nearly allied to the Horsetails, which were extremely abundant during the formation of our coal measures, would appear to have reached the height of our loftiest trees, while at the present day in the tropics and warmer parts of the earth Ferns will frequently attain the height of twenty feet (fig 15), and sometimes even as much as forty feet, bearing on their summit a large tuft of leaves, or, as they are commonly called, *fronds*, a term applied to leaves which, like those of Ferns, bear their fructification or organs of reproduction. In these plants the roots are generally broken up into numerous small fibres and never become enlarged as in the tap-roots (fig. 36, 1) of the higher flowering plants.

In all the plants above mentioned we have no evident flowers, as in the higher plants, hence they have been called

FIG 14

Fig 14 The Mule Fern
(*Aspidium Filix-mas*)

Cryptogams or *Flowerless Plants* They are especially characterised by not producing the special structures known as *seeds*

FIG 15

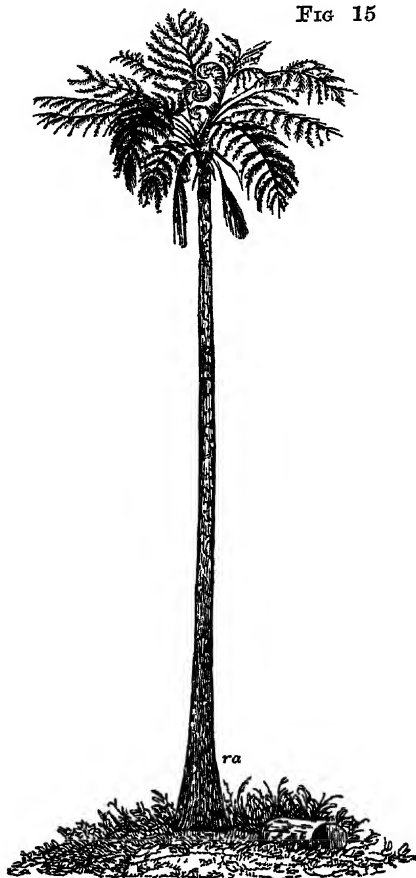


Fig 15 A Tree-fern, showing a tuft of leaves (*fronds*) at the apex of a cylindrical stem, which is enlarged at its base, *a*, by the development of a mass of aerial adventitious roots

All plants above the *Cryptogams*, from ~~pos~~ possessing evident flowers, are termed *Phanerogamous*, *Phanerogams*, or *Flowering Plants*. These latter plants are marked off from all the lower forms by bearing seeds.

The *Phanerogams* also present two well-marked divisions, called respectively the *Angiospermia* and *Gymnospermia*: the former including those plants in which the seeds originate in a case called an *ovary* (*fig* 398, *o*, *o*), and the latter, such plants as the *Fu* and *Larch*, in which they do not. In the *Phanerogams* we have the highest and most perfect forms of plants

A survey of the forms presented by the various plants constituting the vegetation of the globe shows us thus an extraordinary variety in external shape, in actual dimensions, and in peculiarities of internal structure. The simplest with which we are familiar exhibit only a roundish or ovoid body, with no differentiation of parts,

consisting only of a minute mass of living substance, or protoplasm, which may or may not be surrounded by a definite

limiting membrane or cell-wall. Each plant is said to consist of a single cell. Generally, however, with larger size we find the living substance divided up by numerous partition walls into a number of cells. These are, in some cases, arranged in strings or filaments; in others they form flat plates, in yet others they constitute masses of great size and much-divided shape. The plant body, in the latter case, is evidently segmented into parts, which are spoken of as its *members*.

The study of the life history of most plants shows us further that each may have different forms at different periods of its life. In the lower plants this *polymorphy*, as it is called, is very varied, but as the organism studied is higher in the scale, it is found there is a tendency to assume only two forms, which recur in constant alternation with each other. Each is characterised by producing special forms of reproductive organs, and bears a name indicating their nature. In one of them the plant body is found to carry out the process of reproduction by certain cells which are known as *spores* or *gonidia*. These are *asexual* reproductive cells, that is, each is capable by itself of producing a new individual. This form is therefore known as the *sporophyte*, or spore-bearing generation. The other form produces sexual organs, which give rise to reproductive cells of two kinds, neither of which can by itself give rise to a new organism, but after a process of fusion of two of them, the resulting cell can originate such a development. In some plants these sexual cells are apparently all alike, but in most they differ in shape, size, power of motion, &c. Whether similar or dissimilar they are known as *gametes*, and the phase of the plant which bears them is called the *gametophyte*. In many plants the sporophyte produces two kinds of spore, each of which gives rise to a special form of gametophyte. In such cases the two kinds of spore differ very greatly in size. In all the higher plants the two forms regularly alternate, the sexual cells of the gametophyte giving rise to the sporophyte, and the spores of the latter reproducing the gametophyte—the life history of the plant so exhibiting what is known as an *alternation of generations*. In the lower forms, among the *Algæ* and *Fungi*, the sequence of alternation is not regular. The gametophyte, in many cases, itself bears spores as well as gametes, and many spore-bearing generations often follow each other before a sexually produced form recurs.

Of the two forms described, the gametophyte is usually the more prominent among the lower plants. In the *Liverworts* and

Mosses the two are almost equal in degree of development. The gametophyte is the so-called moss plant, and may be either an almost flat green plate irregularly branched, or an axis furnished with numerous leaves. The sporophyte consists of a swollen head or capsule, supported on a stalk of varied length, and remaining attached to the gametophyte. It forms the body which is often somewhat loosely spoken of as the fruit.

Above the Mosses the tendency is to greater development of the sporophyte and retrogression of the gametophyte. In the Ferns and the higher Cryptogams the plant known under the ordinary name of *Fern*, *Horsetail*, or *Club-moss* is the sporophyte, and the gametophyte is a small structure, forming only a plate of cells, or a small tuber-like mass, showing little or no segmentation of its body. In the flowering plants the retrogression of the gametophyte is still more marked, it being composed either of a long tubular structure, or of a few cells enclosed in the cavity of the spore.

Usually the cell produced by the fusion of the gametes gives rise to the new individual while still attached to the gametophyte, so that the sporophyte appears to spring out of the latter. The spores, on the other hand, of whatever kind they may be, are generally set free from the sporophyte, so that the gametophyte appears as an independent structure. A marked exception to this rule occurs in the case of the flowering plants. These produce two kinds of spore: the smaller ones are set free and give rise to the gametophyte which bears the male gamete, the larger ones remain always attached to the sporophyte, producing their appropriate gametophyte in their interior, and ultimately leading to the formation of a special structure called the *seed*.

The body of the plant, whether gametophyte or sporophyte, may show various degrees of complexity of form. It may be evidently divisible into parts, or *members*, which may be all alike, or may be dissimilar, or, again, it may show no such segmentation. In the latter case the plant body is called a *thallus*, and the plant whose most prominent form is of this description is said to be a *Thallophyte*. In the great majority of cases the body consists of two dissimilar members, characterised by growth in opposite directions, these are then called the *root* and the *shoot*. Both of these generally exhibit appendages springing from the main body, but while those of the root are like the member from which they arise, those of the shoot may be of two kinds, some like, others unlike, that on which they are borne. Those which are like it are known as

branches, those unlike it, *leaves*. We can thus distinguish between *thalloid* shoots and *leafy* shoots, according as branches only, or branches and leaves, can be recognised in the shoot. Roots almost always bear branches only, leaves occurring on them only under very exceptional circumstances. A further difference between the root and the shoot consists in the fact that the latter always bears the true reproductive organs. The part of the shoot which gives rise to the appendages is termed the *stem*, and the stem and main root together constitute the *axis* of the plant.

Plants which show such a differentiation of their prominent form are called *Cormophytes*. This prominent form is in most cases the sporophyte, and the distinction between the two parts of its axis can be seen frequently from the very commencement of its development. The fertilised gamete, usually called the *oospore*, is first divided by a cell-wall, known as the *basal* wall, into two segments, of which the upper one, or *epibasal* cell, develops the shoot, and the lower, or *hypobasal* one, ultimately gives rise wholly or partially to the root. The primary root and the primary stem are thus always opposite to each other.

The relative development of root and shoot may vary very greatly. In most of the lower forms the root is frequently of very small size and very simple structure. In the great group of Algæ or Seaweeds, in which the gametophyte is the prominent form, it is never very greatly developed, though the shoot of the same plant may attain large dimensions. In some of the filamentous floating forms it is often only indicated by a single cell at the end of the filament, and this has only a very short duration. In the Fungi, though still of the simplest structure, it is often relatively larger than the shoot, which then consists of only a few filaments which bear the reproductive organs. In the sporophyte of the higher cormophytes both root and shoot are well developed and much branched, the shoot being still relatively the greater.

The shoot usually shows much greater differentiation than the root. Its axis, the stem, gives rise to branches and to leaves. The branches in turn may give origin to other branches, and these to others, thus forming an elaborate branch system. Each branch, like the main stem, also produces leaves. The leaves, on the other hand, do not bear appendages like themselves.

In the higher cormophytes, in which the sporophyte is the prominent form, it produces special shoots for the purpose of bearing the reproductive cells or spores. Usually these cells are borne on special leaves, which are then called *sporophylls*.

Sometimes these sporophylls very closely resemble the ordinary leaves, as in many Ferns, sometimes they differ from them very markedly in appearance and structure. The special shoot of which they are the leaves is then known as the *flower*, and the branch system constituted by the flowers is called the *inflorescence* or *sporophore*. In most cases this is sharply marked off from the general branch system. The flowers have usually, besides the sporophylls proper, certain other external leaves which do not themselves bear spores.

In the lower plants when the spores have become mature they are detached from the parent plant and germinate independently, giving rise to a separate gametophyte. In the flowering plants, where the spores are of two sizes, it is only the *microspores* or *pollen-grains* which are so dispersed. The *macrospore*, or *embryo-sac*, germinates in the *sporangium*, or *ovule*, and bears its peculiar form of gametophyte within itself. By certain appropriate mechanisms the gametophyte arising from the pollen grain is brought into relation with that developed from the embryo sac, and the gametes from the two unite as in other cases to form an oospore. This fusion, the fertilisation of the oosphere or female gamete, is followed generally by a certain development of the neighbouring parts. Even when the gametophytes are developed apart from the sporophyte, the act of fertilisation is often attended with the same result. The body thus produced is known as the *fruit*. In the latter cases the fruit is altogether a development of the gametophyte, in the former, the parts which form it are derived from the sporophyte, to which the gametophyte remains attached. Thus in the flowering plants, the fruit is developed usually from the central portion of the flower.

The facts that the macrospore, or embryo-sac, always remains in the sporangium, or ovule, and that the gametophyte derived from it never has an independent existence, lead to the production of another structure, found at maturity usually within the fruit, and known as the seed. When the gametophyte has been developed it contains normally one sexual cell or gamete, known as the oosphere. This is fertilised by the male gamete while the whole gametophyte is still in the interior of the sporangium, and the oospore resulting from such fertilisation germinates at once, starting the growth of the new sporophyte. This growth takes place at first within the sporangium, and proceeds for a longer or shorter period till the form of the new sporophyte is clearly indicated in its parts. Then the growth temporarily stops, and

the sporangium with its contents becomes separable from the sporophyte. The sporangium or ovule has now become the *seed*, a structure which, from the peculiarities of development indicated, is confined to the flowering plants. It contains the new sporophyte, known as the *embryo*, besides enclosing the remains of the gametophyte which gave rise to the latter, and which may or may not constitute the greater part of the structure.

After the seed has been detached from the sporophyte it remains quiescent for a variable time, but as soon as conditions are favourable the temporarily suspended development is resumed, and the new sporophyte soon attains an independent existence.

The formation of the seed is thus a special feature of those plants in which the macrospore does not become detached from the sporophyte, but develops *in situ*. This important peculiarity marks off the large class of Phanerogams or flowering plants from those below them in the scale of development. In the latter, known as the Cryptogams, the spores are always detached from the sporophyte, and therefore seeds are not produced upon the latter. The gametophyte phase of the plant, however, is none the less constant or important in the former group, though it is rudimentary in the degree of its development.

The sporophyte of the higher plants thus presents us with a series of members. In it we may distinguish the root and the shoot, the latter including various forms of branches and different kinds of leaves. The most important members are the stem, the vegetative branches, the inflorescence, and the flowers; the leaves, some *foliage leaves*, others *sporophylls*; lastly the fruit and seed.

The gametophyte is seen at its best in the lower forms. Here it may show root, stem, and leaf; it may be only a thallus or a thalloid shoot, above the Mosses it is gradually and progressively reduced, being never more than a thallus above this point, and gradually becoming less and less prominent, till at last it consists of only a few cells in the interior of the macrospore.

The several members of the plant may now be considered in greater detail separately, the morphology of the special reproductive members being deferred to a succeeding chapter.

THALLOPHYTES.

The Thallus

The thallus may consist of a single cell, or may be composed of many cells. It shows scarcely any distinction of parts or segmentation, and but little differentiation of its internal tissues. When composed of more than one cell it may be a filament or a collection of filaments, or a flat plate often only one cell thick, or a mass of some size. In the last two cases it may bear a number of hairs from any part of its surface. In some cases, as in *Volvox*, it is a spherical body capable of active movement carried out by special filaments or cilia, which move rapidly to and fro in the water in which the plant lives. It may be branched, certain branches being like the main body, and others specially modified to produce the reproductive organs.

The thallus is seen best in the lowest forms, where generally the whole plant body is of this description. It is the prominent form in most Fungi and Algæ, is that of the gametophyte of the Ferns and most other vascular Cryptogams and of the Flowering Plants. The sporophyte is less frequently a thallus, but this is the case in certain of the Algæ and a few exceptional cases in the Phanerogams, e.g. *Wolfia ariflora*, *Lophogyne*, etc.

CORMOPHYTES.

For many reasons it is most advantageous to commence the study of the morphology of cormophytic plants with the most highly differentiated forms. These are to be met with in the great group of the Phanerogams, and in particular in the section known as the Angiosperms, to which all our ordinary plants with conspicuous flowers belong. The prominent form in these, as we have seen, is the sporophyte.

If we examine the seed of one of these, e.g. that of the common Pea, we find it contains the embryo or young plant in a rudimentary form. This embryo is shown in fig 16. It consists of a distinct central axis, *t*, which is sometimes called the *tigellum*, the lower part of which is known as the *radicle*, *r*, the upper part, which bears two or three rudimentary leaves, is known as the *plumule*, *p*. This axis is united to, or bears, two fleshy masses, or lobes, which are its leaves or *cotyledons*, *c*. The part below the cotyledons is sometimes called the hypocotyledonary portion or *hypocotyl*, and that above them the epicotyledonary part or *epicotyl*. Plants, like the Pea, which bear two cotyledons, are grouped together to form a great class

known as the *Dicotyledons*. Other embryos are found in some seeds which possess only one cotyledon. Such are the embryos of Grasses (*fig 17*) These plants form another great group known as the *Mono-cotyledons*.

When such a seed as the Pea is placed under favourable conditions, its embryo begins at once to develop, the radicle growing in a downward direction, while the plumule extends itself upwards. We thus

FIG 16

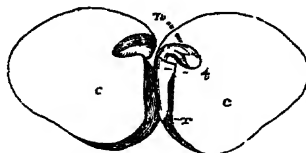


Fig 16 Dicotyledonous embryo of the Pea, laid open (magnified). The radicle *r*. The axis (*tigellum*), terminated by the plumule, *n*. *c, c* The cotyledons. — *Fig 17* Section of the fruit of the Oat. *c* Cotyledon *g* Plumule. *r* Radicle.

FIG 17

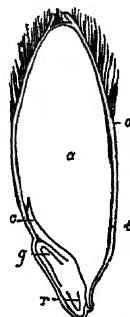


FIG 18.

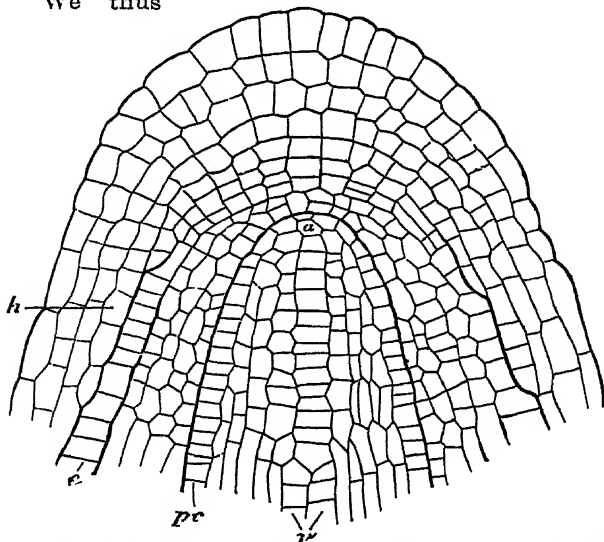


Fig 18 Apex of a root of Buckwheat. *a* Growing point. *h* Root-cap.

can distinguish between the two parts of the axis according to the direction of their growth. From the lower portion is formed the root system, from the upper portion the shoot, consisting of the stem and its appendages.

SECTION I.—THE ROOT.

The root is seen thus to be the descending axis of the plant. It usually attaches the plant to the substratum on which it grows and absorbs nutriment therefrom. It presents certain features which distinguish it at once from the stem, as we have seen, though it may branch repeatedly, it only bears such appendages as are like itself; it never bears true reproductive organs, and only under exceptional circumstances does it give rise to leafy shoots or leaves. It has also other peculiarities of structure; its growth takes place by increase of its substance immediately

FIG 19.

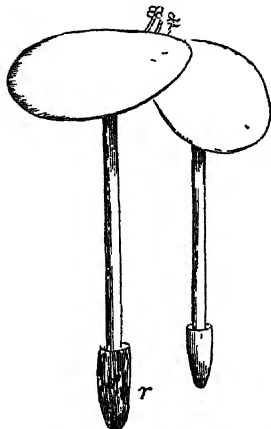


Fig 19 Young plant of Lemna
(Duckweed) ? Root cap

FIG 20.

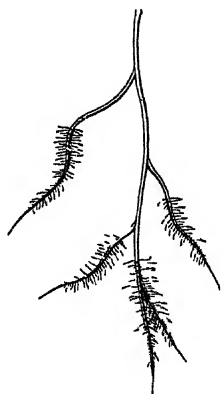


Fig 20 Ultimate branches of
a root, showing position of
root-hairs

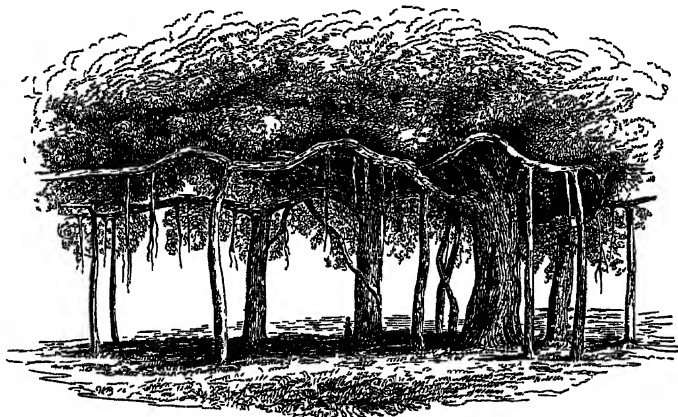
behind its apex, so that the growing part (*a*, fig 18) is always internal, and protected by a thin cushion or cap of tissue known as the *root-cap* (*b*, fig 18, *r*, fig 19). In those roots which grow in ordinary soil, the root is furnished, a little way behind the apex, with a number of very delicate outgrowths from the surface, which penetrate into the crevices between the particles of the soil, and come into very close relationship with them. These structures are known as the *root-hairs*. They are not distributed over the whole surface, but only occupy a small space not far behind the growing part (fig. 20).

The direct prolongation of the radicle downwards forms what is known as the *primary root*. This may grow to a great size,

persisting through the life of the plant. It is usually tapering in form, and bears numbers of branches, which themselves may branch repeatedly and so give rise to a large root-system. When the primary root is thus persistent and stronger than its branches, it forms what is known as a *tap-root*. On the other hand, it is not unusual for the primary root to develop only to a slight extent, and to be speedily surpassed in vigour by its branches.

The branches of the primary root, like the latter, always have their apices covered by a root-cap. They arise, with very few exceptions, within the tissues of the primary root, and in

FIG 21

Fig 21 The Banyan-tree (*Ficus indica*)

their growth bore their way outwards through its external layers. They are known as *secondary* roots, and they in turn produce *tertiary* roots, and so on. In their order of development each branch normally arises nearer to the apex than the one before it, so that the youngest is always the nearest to the tip. This mode of origin is known as *acropetal succession*. It is not confined to roots, but is a feature of branching in general.

Occasionally, however, roots arise out of their proper succession. Such are known as *adventitious* roots. Examples may be seen in the roots produced upon the stems of the Ivy and other plants, by which they are enabled to attach themselves to the surfaces over which they are climbing. Very frequently

roots of this description are developed from injured surfaces, as in the case of those plants which are propagated by means of cuttings. When a young twig of a *Geranium* is severed from the stem and its cut end embedded in moist soil, it shortly puts out these adventitious roots from the cut surface and develops into a new *Geranium* plant. Adventitious roots can also be made to arise from leaves, as in the case of some species of *Begonia* and of *Bryophyllum*. In many other plants aerial roots belonging to this class are given off by the stem or branches, which descend to the ground, and, fixing themselves there, not only act as mechanical supports, but assist the true root in obtaining food. Such roots are well seen in the Banyan or Indian

FIG 22

Fig 22 The Mangrove-tree (*Rhizophora mangle*)

Fig-tree (fig 21), and in the Mangrove (fig 22)

FORMS OF ROOTS —

The chief modifications of the forms of the root depend upon whether or no the primary root persists, and is always stronger than its branches, or whether it is but little developed and soon surpassed in vigour by the latter. In the former case we have the tap-root and its modifications, the chief of which are the *conical*, the *fusiform*, and the *napiform* roots.

Conical Root — When a tap-root is broad at its base, and tapers towards the apex, it is termed *conical*. The roots of Monkshood (*Aconitum Napellus*), Parsnip (*Pastinaca sativa*), and Carrot (*Daucus Carota*) (fig 25) are familiar examples of this form of root. **Fusiform Root**. — This term is applied to a tap-root which swells out a little below its base, and then tapers upwards and downwards (fig 28). The common Radish, and Beet (*Beta vulgaris*), may be taken as examples. **Napiform Root** — This name is given to a root which is much swollen at its base, and tapers below into a long point, the upper part being of a somewhat globular form (fig. 24). It occurs in a variety

of the common Radish (which is hence called the Turnip-radish), in the common Turnip, and in some other plants

In the cases where there is no permanent primary or tap-root we have other forms caused by modifications of the secondary roots. When a root divides at once into a number of slender branches or rootlets, or if the primary root is but little enlarged, and gives off from its sides a multitude of similar branches, it is called *fibrous*. Such roots occur frequently in annual plants, and may be well seen in annual Grasses (*fig 30*), and in bulbous

FIG. 23

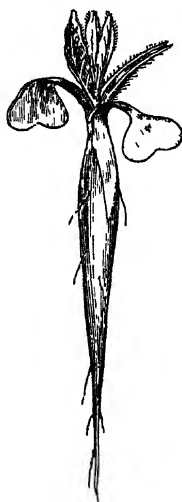


FIG. 24

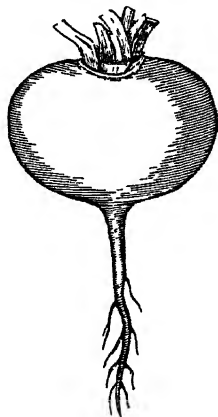


FIG. 25



Fig 23 Fusiform root of the common Radish (*Raphanus sativus*) —
Fig 24 Napiform root of the Turnip (*Brassica Rapa*) — Fig 25
Conical root of the Carrot (*Daucus Carota*)

plants **Tubercular Root**—When some of the divisions of a root become enlarged so as to form more or less rounded, oval, or ovoid expansions (*fig 26*), the root is said to be *tuberculated*, or *tubercular*, and each enlargement is called a *tubercule*. Such a root occurs in various terrestrial Orchids, the Jalap plant, &c. These tubercules should not be confounded with tubers (page 44), which are subterranean modifications of the stem. The presence of buds on the latter at once distinguishes them. In many Orchids (as, for instance, *Orchis maculata*) the tubercules are divided at their extremities, so that the whole somewhat resembles the

human hand (*fig. 27*) ; they are then said to be *palmated*, and the root is also thus termed. Or when a number of tubercles, arise from a common point, as in the *Dahlia* (*fig. 28*), and

FIG 26

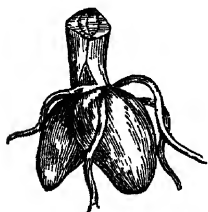


FIG 27

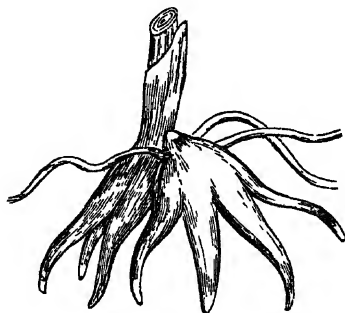


Fig 26 Tubercular roots of an *Orcus* — *Fig 27* Palmated tubercles of an *Orcus*

FIG 28



FIG 29.

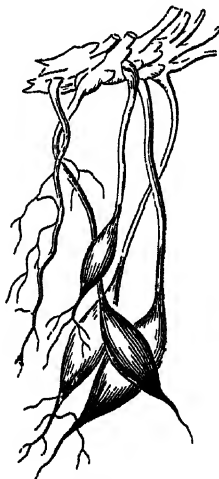


Fig 28 Fasciculated roots of the *Dahlia* — *Fig 29* Nodulose root of the common *Dropwort* (*Sium Filipendula*)

Bird's-nest *Orchis* (*Neottia Nidus-avis*), the root is said to be *fasciculated* or *tufted*.

When the branches of a root are expanded only at certain

points, other terms are applied. Thus when the branches are enlarged irregularly towards the ends, as in the common Drop wort, the root is *nodulose* (fig. 29), when the branches have alternate contractions and expansions, so as to present a beaded appearance, as in *Pelargonium triste*, the root is *moniliform*, *necklace-shaped*, or *beaded* (fig. 31), and when the root has a number of ring-like expansions on its surface, as in *Ipecacuanha*, it is *annulated* (fig. 32).

FIG 30.

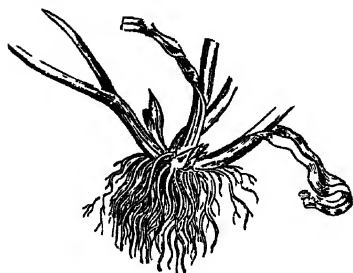


FIG 31.

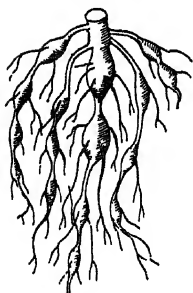


FIG 32

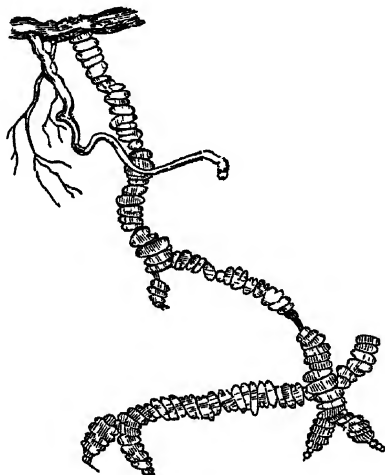


Fig 30 Fibrous roots of a Grass —
 Fig 31 Moniliform or beaded root
 — Fig 32 Annulated root of Ipe-
 cacuanha (*Cephaelis Ipecacuanha*)

As to their duration, roots may be divided into *annual*, *biennial*, or *perennial*.

1 *Annual Roots*.—These are produced by plants which grow from seed, flower, and die the same year in which they are developed. In such plants the roots are always of small size, and either all spring from a common point as in annual Grasses (fig. 30), or the primary root is small, and gives off from its sides a number of small branches. Such plants, in the process of

flowering and ripening their fruits and seeds, exhaust all the nutriment they contain, and perish.

2. *Biennial Roots*—These are produced by plants which spring from seed one year, but which do not flower and ripen their seeds till the second year, when they perish. Such roots are commonly enlarged in various ways at the close of the first season, in consequence of their tissues becoming goaded with nutritious matters stored up for the support of the plant during its flowering and fruiting the succeeding season. The Carrot (*fig 25*) and Turnip (*fig 24*) afford us good examples of biennial roots.

3. *Perennial Roots*—These are the roots of plants which live for many years. In some such plants as the Dahlia (*fig 28*), and Orchis (*figs 26 and 27*), the roots are the only portions

FIG 33

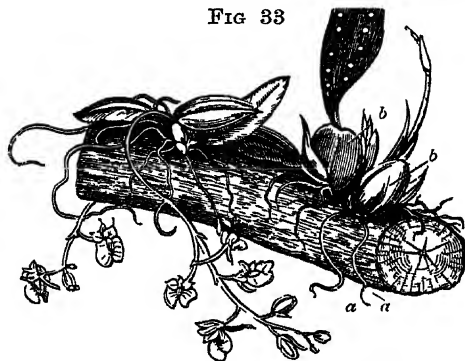


Fig 33 Orchidaceous plants, to show their mode of growth. *a, a* Aerial roots. *b, b*, Pseudobulbs

of the plant which are thus perennial, their stems dying down to the ground yearly. Perennial roots are either of woody consistence, or more or less fleshy, like those of biennial plants. In the case of fleshy roots such as the Dahlia and Orchis, the individual roots are not in themselves perennial, but usually perish annually, but before doing so, they produce other roots from some point or points of their substance, hence, while the root as a whole is perennial, any particular portion may perish. Woody roots are commonly perennial in themselves, and are not renewed.

Certain peculiarities are shown by the roots of plants which do not grow in the soil. Those which are to be met with in water are usually long, unbranched, somewhat fleshy or succulent, and devoid of hairs. They may be denominated *aquatic roots*. Two

other classes of plants also show modifications which depend upon their peculiar mode of life. These are *epiphytes* and *parasites*.

Roots of Epiphytes or Air-plants —In these plants special aerial roots are produced (*fig. 33, a, a*), and as these never reach the soil they cannot obtain any food from it, but must draw their food entirely from the air in which they are developed, hence the name of *air-plants* which is applied to them. They are also called *epiphytes*, because they commonly grow upon other plants. They have frequently also small roots of the ordinary type, which penetrate into cracks or crannies in the bark of the supporting plant, from which they absorb small quantities of food from the débris which accumulates there.

FIG. 34.



FIG 35

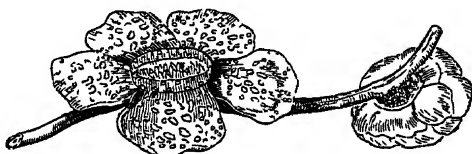


Fig 34 Cuscuta or Dodder-plant —
Fig 35 Flower and flower-bud of
Rafflesia Arnoldi, a parasitic plant of
Sumatra

Most Orchids (*fig. 33*) and Tillandsias afford us illustrations of epiphytic plants. The aerial roots of such plants are frequently green and serve as organs of assimilation. The aerial roots of Orchids have also a layer of usually very delicate fibrous cells placed over the true epidermis, to which the name of *root-sheath* (*velamen radicum*) has been applied by Schleiden, who also calls such roots *coated roots*.

Roots of Parasites —These are plants which not only grow upon others, but which, instead of sending their roots into the air and deriving their food from it, as is the case with the epiphytes, send them into the tissues of the plants upon which they grow, and obtain nutriment from them. The plant which they thus penetrate and feed upon is termed their *host*, and their sucking roots are termed *haustoria*. The Mistletoe

(*Viscum album*), Broom-rapes (*Orobanchæ*), Dodders (*Cuscuta*) (fig 34), and *Rafflesia Arnoldi* (fig 35), may be cited as examples of such plants. These parasites are of various natures thus, some have green foliage, as the Mistletoe, while many others are pale or brownish or possess other tints than green, as the Broom-rapes and *Rafflesia*. The latter plant is especially interesting from its producing the largest flowers of any known plant thus the first flower which was discovered measured nine feet in circumference, and weighed fifteen pounds.

Parasitic plants also vary in the degree of their parasitism, thus the Mistletoe and the greater number of parasites are, so far as their roots are concerned, entirely dependent upon the plants on which they grow for their food. Others obtain their food at first, like other plants, by means of the ordinary roots contained in the soil, but after having arrived at a certain age, these perish, and they then derive their food entirely from roots which penetrate the plants upon which they grow, others, again, continue throughout their life to derive a portion of their food by means of roots imbedded in the soil.

It will thus be seen that parasites differ from other plants in the fact that they do not live like them entirely on inorganic matters, but derive at least some of their food in an assimilated state from the plants on which they grow. Thus, when green, like the Mistletoe, they obtain a portion of their food like ordinary plants, from the air, but if of other colours than green, all their food is derived by their roots from the plants on which they grow. It must also necessarily happen that parasites, by living partially or entirely upon those plants on which they are placed, frequently injure, and even destroy them, and in this way great damage is done to Clover, Flax, and other crops in this country and elsewhere.

Besides the parasites just described, there is also another class of plants called *saprophytes*, which, whilst agreeing with parasites in deriving their food from already formed organic material, differ from this latter class in growing on dead organic substances, and therefore assimilating such matter as is in a state of decomposition or decay. Such plants as *Monotropa Hypopitys*, *Corallorhiza innata*, *Epipogon Gmelini*, and *Neotia Nidus-avis*, together with the greater number of Fungi, are examples of Saprophytes.

In the plants which are lower in the scale than the vascular cryptogams, the roots are generally of a very simple type. In all of them the root may be described as the descending axis of

the plant, as its growth is always in the opposite direction to that of the shoot. It may be extremely rudimentary, as in some of the lowest of the Algæ or Seaweeds, where it consists only of a single terminal cell, which soon perishes. In these lowly forms the root generally is only recognisable in the gametophyte. It may be formed of a mass of cells, sometimes tapering and branched, and hardly distinguishable from the thalloid shoot from which it springs; or it may be a long hair-like structure, much resembling the root hairs described as arising on the true roots of the sporophyte of the higher forms.

There are not wanting instances again of plants which bear no primary root at all. Such are the gametophyte of the Mosses, the sporophyte of *Salvina* and *Psilotum* among the vascular Cryptogams, and of *Utricularia*, *Epipogon*, and *Coralorhiza* among flowering plants. The functions of the root are in these cases discharged by modifications of other members of the plant body, or by adventitious roots developed after the stem and leaves have been differentiated.

SECTION II.—THE SHOOT.

A. The Stem.

The stem may be defined as that part of the axis which at its first development in the embryo takes an opposite direction to the root, seeking the light and air, and hence termed the ascending axis, and bearing on its surface the leaves and other leafy appendages (*fig 36, t*). This definition will, in numerous instances, only strictly apply to a stem at its earliest development, for it frequently happens that, soon after its first appearance, instead of continuing to take an upward direction into the air, it will grow along the ground, or even bury itself beneath the surface, and thus by withdrawing itself from the light and air it resembles, in such respects, the root, with which such stems are, therefore, sometimes confounded. In these cases, however, a stem is at once distinguished from a root by bearing scales or cataphyllary leaves. The presence of leaves is therefore the

FIG 36

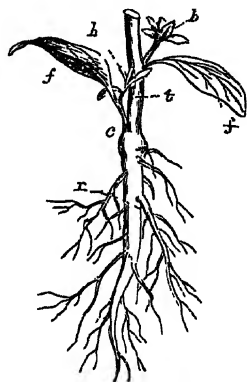


Fig 36 Lower part of the stem and root of the common Stock. *b*, The root with its branches. *t* The stem. *f*, *f* Leaves. *b*, *b* Leaf-buds.

essential characteristic of a stem, in contradistinction to a root, from which such structures are normally absent.

The appendages of the stem arise as do those of the root in acropetal succession, but unlike the latter their places of origin are very definite. We can distinguish on a stem the points from which they arise, which are known as *nodes* (*fig 38 c, c, c*). Each node produces usually a leaf or leaves, and in the *axils* of the foliage leaves or the angle formed between the stem and leaf, a branch or branches. The branch in many cases is not developed far, though it is always indicated. The spaces between the nodes, which are always naked, are called *internodes* (*fig 38, d, d*). Generally the arrangement of the tissue of the stem at the nodes is somewhat different from that in the internodes, thus at a node it exhibits a more or less interrupted appearance, which arises from a portion of its fibro-vascular tissue being given off to enter into the structure of the leaf. This appearance is most evident in those cases where the internodes are clearly developed, and especially if under such circumstances the leaf or leaves which arise encircle the stem, as in the Bamboo and other Grasses, in such plants each leaf causes the formation of a hardened ring externally, and thus produces the appearance of a joint or articulation, and indeed, in some cases, the stem does easily separate into distinct portions at these joints, as in the common Pink, in which case it is said to be *jointed* or *articulated*.

At the apex of the main stem and of all its branches we find the surface covered over by the young leaves which, growing faster than the stem itself, roof it over and protect it. The apex of the stem is never covered by a cap like that of the root. The growth of the stem in length is confined to the young internodes, and while active formation of tissue is proceeding these remain short, the nodes thus being compressed together. The leaves at first grow most strongly on their lower sides, and are thus enabled to arch over the stem. The arrangement of the parts can be seen most easily when growth is very slow, or altogether suspended, as in the winter, though the structure is the same at all times. The apex of the stem with its covering of leaves is known as the *bud*. It is usual to speak of *terminal* and *lateral* buds, according to their position at the apex of the main stem or in the axils of the leaves. In the latter case, however, the buds are the terminations of the branches and are therefore really terminal.

The buds of temperate and cold climates, which remain

dormant during the winter, and which are accordingly exposed to all its rigours, have generally certain protective organs developed on their outer surface in the form of modified leaves (*cataphyllary*), which are commonly called *scales*. These are usually of a hardened texture, and are sometimes covered with a resinous secretion, as in the Horsechestnut and several species of Poplars, or with a dense coating of soft hairs or down, as in some Willows. Such scales, therefore, by interposing between the tender rudimentary leaves of the bud and the air a thick coating of matter which is a bad conductor of heat and insoluble in water, protect them from the influence of external

FIG 37



FIG 38

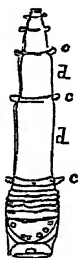


FIG 39



FIG 37 A shoot one year old of the Horsechestnut, with terminal bud *a* Scar produced by the falling off of the bud scales of the previous year *b, b* Scars caused by the falling off of the petioles of the leaves of the present year, with buds, *c*, in their axils—FIG 38 Diagram to illustrate the growth of the shoot from the bud *c, c, c* The nodes where the leaves are situated *d, d* The internodes developed between them—FIG 39 Shoot of the Lilac (*Syringa vulgaris*), showing suppression of the terminal bud, and two lateral buds in its place (*false dichotomy*)

circumstances, by which they would be otherwise injured, or even destroyed. Buds thus protected are sometimes termed *scaly*. In the buds of tropical regions, and those of herbaceous plants growing in temperate climates which are not thus exposed to the influence of a winter, such protective organs would be unnecessary, and are accordingly absent, and hence all the leaves of these buds are of nearly the same character. Such buds are called *naked*. In a few instances we find even that the buds of perennial plants growing in cold climates, and which are exposed during the winter, are naked like those of tropical and herbaceous plants. Such is the case, for instance,

with the Alder Buckthorn (*Rhamnus Frangula*), and those of some species of *Viburnum*

These protective organs of the bud are commonly, as we have just mentioned, termed *scales*, but they have also received the name of *tegmenta*. That such scales are really only modified leaves adapted for a special purpose, is proved not only by their position with regard to the true leaves, but also from the gradual transitional states, which may be frequently traced from them

FIG 40



FIG 41

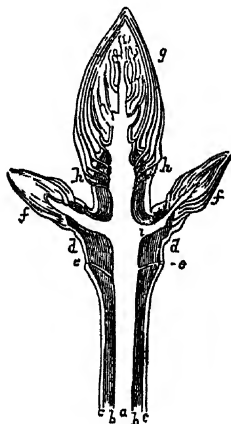


FIG 40 Branch of Oak with alternate leaves and leaf-buds in their axils
a, a Buds b, b Leaves — FIG 41 Vertical section through the end of
a twig of the Hopschestnut (*Euscylus Hippocastanum*), before the bursting
of the bud. After Schleiden

to the ordinary leaves of the bud. These scales have only a temporary duration, falling off as soon as the growth of the bud commences in the spring.

The bud thus contains all the elements of a stem or branch; in fact it is really the first stage in the development of these parts, the axis being here so short that the rudimentary leaves are closely packed together, and thus overlap one another. When growth commences in the spring, or whenever vegetation is reanimated, the internodes between the leaves become developed (fig 38, d, d, d), and these therefore become separated from one another, c, c, c, and thus the stem or branch increases in length, or a new branch is formed. In other words, the leaves,

which in a bud state overlap one another and surround a growing point or axis, by the elongation of the internodes of that axis become separated and dispersed over a branch or an elongation of the stem.

It frequently happens that many of the lateral buds never develop into branches. This is generally the case with those which are produced in the axils of the lower leaves of the twigs of most trees. Sometimes, though not developed at once, they retain for years the power of growing into branches. These buds are called *dormant* buds, and the branches ultimately arising from them are known as *deferred* branches. When they appear, they seem to be developed out of their proper places, and make the branching appear very complicated.

BRANCHING—In the same way as branches are produced on the main axis or stem, so in like manner from the axils of the leaves of these branches other buds and branches are formed, these again will form a third series, to which will succeed a fourth, fifth, and so on. The main divisions of the stem are called *branches*, while the smaller divisions of these are commonly termed *twigs*. The general arrangement and modifications to which these are liable are commonly described under the name of *ramification* or *branching*, which may be defined as the lateral development of *similar parts*. Thus the divisions of a stem or root are branches; but the lateral development from a stem or branch of leaves, or other *dissimilar* parts, such as hairs, is not branching.

There are two principal types of branching, the *lateral* and the *dichotomous*. When the axis continues to develop in an upward direction by a terminal bud or growing point, and its branches are produced from smaller growing points originating laterally on the main one (*fig. 40, a, a*), the branching is called *lateral*. This is, probably, the universal system of branching in Angiosperms, although there are some apparent exceptions. But when the terminal bud or growing point *bifurcates*, and thus produces two shoots, which, at any rate at first, are of equal strength, so that the foot or *podium* bears two branches arranged in a forked manner (*fig. 42*), the branching is termed *dichotomous*. This form is common in many of the Cryptogamia.

In dichotomous branching we have again two forms—one which is termed *true* or *normal dichotomy*, in which the two branches continue to develop equally in a forked manner—that is, each becomes the podium of a new dichotomy (*fig. 42*)—and

a second, in which one branch grows much more vigorously than the other, when it is called *sympodial* (fig 43, A and B). In this latter case, owing to the unequal growth of the branches, the pedia of successive bifurcations form an axis which is termed the *pseud-axis* or *sympodium*, on which the weaker fork-branches or bifurcations appear as lateral branches (fig 43, A, *l, r, l, r*, and B, *l, l, l, l*). This branching might at first sight be confounded with the lateral form, in which we have a continuous axis giving off lateral branches, but it differs in the fact that here the apparent primary axis consists of a succession of secondary axes

FIG 42

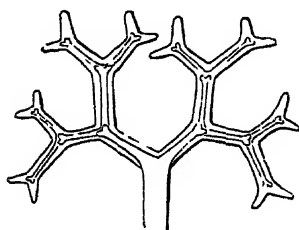


FIG 43

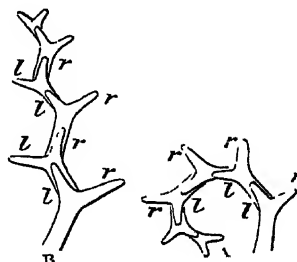


FIG 42 Diagram of normal or true dichotomous branching, showing the two branches equally developed in a forked manner, and each branch dividing in succession in a similar way — FIG 43 Diagrams of sympodial dichotomous branching. A Botryoid or Helicoid dichotomy. B Cincinnal or Scorpioid dichotomy. In A, the left-hand branches, *l, l, l, l*, of successive dichotomies are much more developed than the right, *r, r, r, r*. In B, the left-hand branches, *l, l*, and those of the right-hand, *l, l*, are alternately more vigorous in their growth. After Sachs.

In sympodial branching, again, the sympodium may be either formed of the fork-branches of the same side (left or right) of successive dichotomies (fig 43, A, *l, l, l*), or it may consist alternately of the left and right fork-branches or bifurcations (fig. 43, B, *l, r, l, r*). In the former case it is called *helicoid* or *botryoid dichotomy*, in the latter, *scorpioid* or *cincinnal dichotomy*.

Of the lateral branching there are also two forms, the *racemose* or *monopodial* and the *cymose*. In the first the primary axis continues to develop upwards and gives off acropetally lateral branches from axillary buds, which also give off lateral branches in a similar manner. The main axis here constitutes a *monopodium* as it forms a single foot or podium for the

branches. In the second form the lateral axes at an early age develop much more vigorously than the primary axis, and each gives rise to other lateral branches in a similar way. It is in this way that in some plants, by the partial or total suppression of the terminal bud, and the subsequent vigorous growth of the closely arranged lateral buds forming two shoots apparently radiating from a common point, as if caused by the division of the terminal bud, as in true dichotomous branching, an apparent but false dichotomy is produced, which is called a *dichasium* or *false cyme*. This suppression of the terminal bud may occur naturally, as in the Lilac (*fig. 39*), or accidentally from frost or other injury.

If more than two buds arise just behind the apex, and give rise accordingly to more than two branches, a *polychasium* results. When, on the other hand, only one branch is developed at each point, and this becomes stronger than the one from which it springs, we have a pseud-axis or *sympodium* formed, closely resembling the sympodium of dichotomous branching. It can be distinguished from the latter by the fact of the branch arising behind the original growing point, and not from its division. The sympodium may be helicoid or bostyoid as in the other case. The branching of many forest trees is of this kind.

The pseud-axis as first formed is crooked, and shows its mode of formation. As it gets older the continued growth and thickening of its successive parts cause it to become straight, and it is then very difficult to distinguish it from a monopodium.

These modes of branching will be again alluded to under the head of INFLORESCENCE, in which their more practical application arises.

All lateral or axillary buds are called *regular* or *normal*, and their arrangement in such cases is necessarily the same as that of the leaves. As branches are formed from buds thus placed, it should follow that their arrangement should also correspond to that of the leaves. This corresponding symmetry, however, between the arrangement of the branches and that of the leaves is interfered with from various causes. Thus, in the first place, by many of the *regular buds not being developed*. Secondly, by the development of other buds which arise irregularly at various other points than the axils of leaves. These are called, from their abnormal origin, *adventitious*. And, thirdly, by the formation of *accessory buds*.

1. *Non-development of the Regular Buds*—This frequently takes place irregularly, and is then altogether owing to local or special causes, thus, want of light, too much crowding, or bad soil, may cause many buds to become abortive, or to perish after having acquired a slight development. In other instances, however, this non-development of the buds takes place in the most

FIG 44

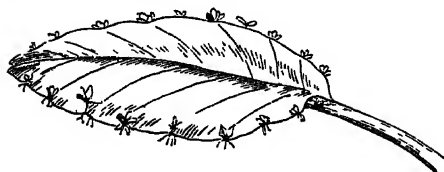


FIG 45

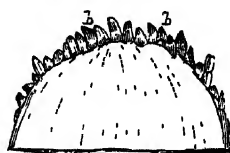


Fig 44 Leaf of *Bryophyllum calycinum* with buds on its margins — Fig 45
End of the leaf of *Malaxis paludosa*, with buds, *b, b*, on its margins

regular manner, thus, in Ficus, where the leaves are very closely arranged in a spiral manner, the branches, instead of presenting a similar arrangement, are placed in circles around the axis at distant intervals. This arises from the non development of many of the buds of the leaves which form the spine, which is followed by the development of the buds in the axils of other leaves successively, and as such leaves are thickly placed, we are unable, after the development of the branches, to trace clearly the tuins of the spine, so that they appear to grow in a circle.

FIG 46

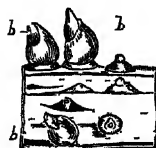


Fig 46 A portion of the leaf of *Onithogalum thyrsoides*, showing buds, *b, b, b*, on its surface

2. *Adventitious Buds*.—These have been found on various parts of the plant, as on the root, the woody portion of the stem, the leaves, and other organs. Thus, when a tree is *pollarded*, that is, when the main branches and the apex of the trunk are cut off, the latter becomes so gorged with sap that a multitude of adventitious buds are formed, from which branches are developed. The branches thus produced by pollarding are, however, to a certain extent, also caused by the develop-

ment of regular buds which had become dormant from some cause having hitherto interfered with their growth.

Leaves bearing buds are called *proliferous*. Such buds may be produced artificially on various leaves, such as those of-

species of *Gesneria*, *Gloxinia*, *Achimenes*, by the infliction of wounds, and by afterwards placing them in a moist soil, and exposing them to the other influences which are favourable for the growth of buds. The buds developed on the leaves, in such cases, ultimately form independent plants, and this process is therefore constantly resorted to by gardeners as a means of propagation. These adventitious buds differ from those commonly produced in the axils of leaves, or at least from those which remain dormant during the winter, in being smaller, and having no external protective organs or scales (*figs* 44-46).

3. *Accessory Buds*—The third cause of irregularity in the

FIG 47.

FIG 48

FIG 49



Fig 47 Branch of a species of Maple with three buds, *a*, placed side by side—*Fig* 48 A piece of a branch of the Walnut-tree *p* The petiole having in its axil a number of buds placed one above the other, the uppermost, *b*, most developed—*Fig* 49 A piece of a branch of the Tartarian Honeysuckle (*Lonicera tatarica*), bearing a leaf, *f*, with numerous buds, *b*, in its axil, placed above one another, the lowermost being the most developed

distribution and appearance of branches arises from the multiplication of buds in the axils of leaves. Thus, instead of one bud, we have in rare cases two, three, or more, thus situated (*figs* 47-49), such are called *accessory buds*. These buds may be either placed one above another, or side by side. Thus, in certain Willows, Poplars, and Maples, we have three buds placed side by side (*fig* 47, *a*), which frequently give rise to a corresponding number of branches. In some Aristolochias, in Walnuts (*fig* 48, *b*), in the Tartarian Honeysuckle (*fig* 49, *b*), and other plants, the accessory buds are arranged one above another. Sometimes the uppermost bud alone develops (*fig* 48, *b*), as in the Walnut, and thus the branch which is

formed arises above the axil of the leaf, in which case it is said to be *extra-axillary*. In the Tartarian Honeysuckle (*fig. 49, b*), the axillary or lowest bud is that which forms the strongest branch, over which a number of smaller branches are placed arising from the development of the accessory buds. In some trees, as the Larch, and Ash, and frequently in herbaceous plants, these accessory buds, instead of forming separate branches, become more or less united, and the branches thus produced then assume a more or less flattened or thickened appearance. Such abnormal branches are commonly called *fasciated*. Fasciated branches may, however, be produced by a single bud developing in an irregular manner. In some cases, as in *Cuscuta*, where several buds occur in the axil of the same leaf, this is caused by the branching of the original single one.

Besides the above three principal sources of abnormal or irregular development of the branches, some minor ones also arise from the formation of *extra-axillary* branches in other ways than those just alluded to. Thus the branch may adhere for a short distance either to the stem or to the leaf-stalk, causing curious apparent displacements.

Sometimes the subtending leaf is suppressed, as in many inflorescences, where the flower seems to spring from the stem quite independently. In some Mosses the normal position of the branch is at the back of the leaf instead of in its axil, in others it arises at the side of the leaf. These variations follow the mode of division of the cell from which both leaf and branch originate. In some of the higher plants, both in the vascular Cryptogams and the Flowering Plants, each branch appears by the side of a leaf. In others there is no relation at all between the origin of the two members, as in *Lycopodium*. Floral and scaly leaves moreover do not bear branches in their axils.

Adventitious shoots may also arise from roots, as may be observed in many Rosaceæ, the Mountain Paony, the Japan Anemone, and many other plants. They may in many cases be artificially stimulated to appear, if the root be wounded, it will often produce them, much in the same way as the leaves of *Begonia*. The Blackberry under such circumstances will produce shoots from its roots, so freely indeed that the plant can be propagated by root-cuttings.

FORMS OF STEM AND BRANCHES.—The stem is usually more or less cylindrical, though this is far from universal. In many herbaceous plants it becomes angular, and in some, particularly in those of certain natural orders, as the Cactaceæ, Orchidaceæ,

Euphorbiaceæ, &c, it assumes a variety of anomalous forms. Thus in many epiphytic Orchids it becomes more or less oval or rounded, and has received the name of *pseudobulb* (fig 33, b, b); in the Melon-cactus it is globular, and in other Cacti it is columnar, more or less flattened, or jointed. In the Tortoise or Elephant's foot Plant (*Testudinaria elephantipes*), it forms a large rough irregular mass.

In general, stems possess a firm texture, and can therefore

FIG 50



Fig 50 Climbing stem of the Ivy, a, a Aerial roots

FIG 51



Fig 51 Twining stem of Honeysuckle

FIG 52

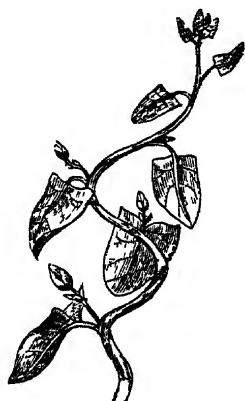


Fig 52 Twining stem of a species of *Convolvulus*

readily sustain themselves in an upright position; but at other times they are too weak to support themselves, and then either trail along the ground, or attach themselves to some other plant or neighbouring object. In such cases, if they trail on the ground, they are said to be *procumbent* or *prostrate*, or if when thus reclining they rise towards their extremity, they are *decumbent*, or if they rise obliquely from near the base, *ascending*. But, instead of resting on the ground, they may take an erect position and cling to neighbouring plants or other objects for

support They are called *climbing* if they proceed in a more or less rectilinear direction, as in the Passion-flower, where they adhere to other bodies by means of little twisted ramifications called tendrils, or in the Ivy, where they emit little aerial roots from their sides, by which they cling to neighbouring bodies (*fig* 50, *a, a*) If such stems twist round other bodies in a spiral manner they are said to be *twining*, and this twining may take place either from right to left, as in some Convolvuli (*fig* 52), French Bean, and Dodder, or from left to right, as in the Honeysuckle (*fig.* 51), Hop, and Black Bryony, or first in one direction and then in another, irregularly, as in the White Bryony - The climbing and twining stems of cold and temperate regions are generally herbaceous or die annually, although we have exceptions in those of the Ivy, Clematis, and Honeysuckle, which are woody In tropical climates these woody climbing and twining stems often occur, these are called *lianas* or *lianes*, and they frequently ascend to the tops of the loftiest trees, and then either descend to the ground again, or pass to the branches of neighbouring trees.

The stem has received many names according to its nature. Thus it is called a *caulis* in plants which are herbaceous, or die down annually to the surface of the ground, a *trunk*, as in trees, where it is woody and perennial, a *culm*, as in most Grasses and Sedges, where it presents a jointed appearance, and a *caudex* or *stipe*, as in Tree-ferns and Palms.

Herbs, Shrubs, and Trees.—From the nature, duration, and mode of branching of stems, plants have been arranged from the earliest periods in three divisions, called, respectively, *Herbs*, *Shrubs*, and *Trees*. Thus, those plants which have stems that die down annually to the surface of the ground are called *herbs*; while those with perennial aerial woody stems are denominated *trees* or *shrubs* according to circumstances, as described below. Herbs are also further characterised as *annual*, *biennial*, and *perennial* They are *annual* when they only live through one season, that is, between the spring and winter, *biennial*, when they spring from seed in one season, and die in the second, after producing flowers, fruit, and seed, and *perennial*, when they spring from seed in one season, and continue to live through a succession of years, annually sending up an herbaceous stem. The term *tree* is applied if the branches are perennial and arise from a trunk When the branches are perennial and proceed directly from, or near to, the surface of the ground, without any trunk, or where this is very short, a

shrub is formed, this when low and branched very much at the base, is denominated a *bush*. The term *undershrub* is also applied to a small shrub which is intermediate in its characters between an ordinary shrub and an herb, in such a plant some of its branches generally perish annually, while others are more or less permanent. All the above kinds of stems are connected by intermediate links, so that in many cases they are by no means well defined.

If the terminal bud of a stem is continually developed, the axis upon which it is placed is prolonged upwards from the earth to its summit, giving off branches from its side, as in most Firs, such a stem has been termed *excurrent*. When the main stem is arrested in its growth by the process of flowering, or some other cause, and the lateral buds become the more vigorously developed, so that the stem appears to divide into a number of irregular branches, it is said to be *deliquescent*. These different kinds of growth influence materially the general form of trees. Thus, those with excurrent stems are usually more or less conical or pyramidal, while those with deliquescent stems are rounded or spreading. The general appearance of trees also depends upon the nature of the lateral branches, and upon the angle which they make with the stem from which they arise. If the branches are firm, and spring at an acute angle to the stem, as in the Cypress and Lombardy Poplar, they are erect, and the tree is more or less narrowed, if they come off at a right angle, the branches are *spreading*, as in the Oak and Cedar, if the angle is very obtuse, or if the branches bend downwards from their origin, as in the Weeping Ash and Weeping Elm, they are termed *weeping* or *pendulous*, in other cases this weeping appearance arises from the weakness and flexibility of the branches, as in the Weeping Willow and Weeping Birch. The relative length also of the upper and lower branches will give rise to corresponding differences in the general appearance of trees. If the lower branches are the longest and become shorter as they approach the top, the whole will take the form of a cone or pyramid, as in the Spruce Fir, if the middle branches are longer than those of the base and apex, the general appearance will be rounded or oval, as in the Horse-chestnut, if those of the top are the most developed, the form will be umbrella-like, as in the Italian Pine.

KINDS OF STEM AND BRANCHES.—We have seen that the stem (page 25), when first developed, always passes upwards, while the root at the same time passes downwards. In many

instances this original direction of the stem is continued more or less throughout its life, but in other cases the terminal bud either acquires an irregular development, and the stem runs along, or remains under, the surface of the ground, or it perishes

FIG 53



FIG 55



FIG 54



Fig 53 A portion of the common Strawberry plant a' An axis producing a tuft of leaves at its extremity, the upper of which, r , are well developed and green, and the lower rudimentary. From the axil of one of the latter a second axis or runner, a'' , arises, bearing a rudimentary leaf, f' , near the middle, and a cluster of leaves, r , at its end. a''' A third axis produced in a similar manner to the former. f, f' Roots or rootlets. — Fig 54 Off-set of *Sempervivum* — Fig 55 Plant showing the process of layering

altogether at a very early period, and an axillary branch takes its place, which also, by developing laterally, likewise continues near the surface of the ground, or burrows beneath it. From these peculiarities in the direction and growth of stems and branches, we have a number of modifications which we

now proceed to describe. These are best treated of under two heads, namely, those which are *aerial*, and those which are *subterranean*. We can, however, by no means draw a distinct line between the modifications of stem which these two divisions respectively contain, as certain forms occasionally pass from one into the other, thus being both subterranean and aerial at different points, or at different periods of their course.

1. AERIAL MODIFICATIONS OF THE STEM AND BRANCHES.—Of these the more important are the *runner*, the *offset*, the *stolon*, the *sucker*, the *rhizome*, the *phylloclade*, and the *spine* or *thorn*. Certain forms of *tendrils* may be included here. The flower is also a modified shoot. The rhizome is sometimes subterranean.

a *The Runner or Flagellum* (fig 53).—This is an elongated, slender, prostrate branch, *a'*, sent off from the base of the stem, and giving off at its extremity leaves, *l*, and roots, *f*, and thus producing a new plant, which extends itself in a similar manner. This is well seen in the common Strawberry.

b *The Offset* (fig 54).—This is a short, prostrate, more or less thickened branch, which produces at its apex small roots and a tuft of leaves, and thus forms an independent plant, which is capable of producing other offsets in a like manner. It is well seen in the Houseleek. This differs very little from the ordinary runner, except in being shorter, somewhat thicker, and its leaves distinctly tufted.

c *The Stolon*.—This is a branch given off above the surface of the earth, but which curves or proceeds downwards towards it, and when it reaches a moist spot it sends rootlets into the ground, and a stem upwards into the air, and being thus capable of acquiring food independently of its parent, it ultimately forms a new individual. The Currant, Gooseberry, and other plants, multiply in this way. All such plants are said to be *stoloniferous*. Gardeners imitate this natural formation of new individuals when they lay down a branch into the earth, from which a new plant is ultimately formed, this process is technically called *layering* (fig 55).

d *The Sucker* (figs 56 and 57).—This is a branch which arises from the stem below the surface of the earth, and which, after proceeding in a horizontal direction for a certain distance, and giving off little roots or rootlets in its course, turns upwards into the air, and ultimately forms an independent plant. Plants thus producing suckers are said to be *surculose*. Good examples of this kind of stem are seen in the Rose, the Raspberry, and the Mint. The sucker can scarcely be said to differ in any

essential particulars from the stolon, except that it is originally subterranean, and ultimately aerial; whereas the stolon is first aerial, and then subterranean

FIG 56

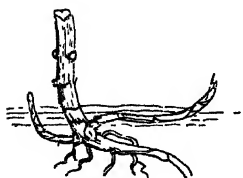
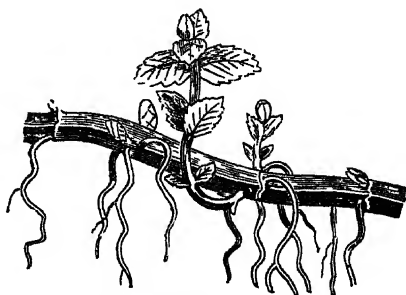


FIG 57



FIGS. 56 and 57 Suckers of species of *Mentha*

e *The Rhizome or Rootstock* (figs 58 and 59) — This is a prostrate thickened stem or branch running along the surface of the ground, or more generally partly beneath it, and giving off small roots or rootlets from its lower side, and leaves and buds

FIG. 58

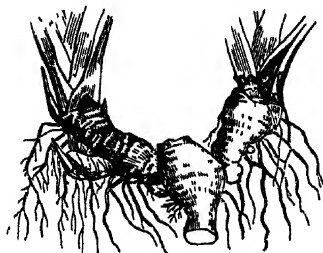


FIG 59

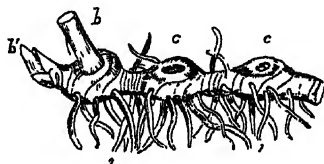


FIG 58 A portion of the rhizome of a species of *Iris* — FIG 59 A portion of the rhizome of the Solomon's Seal (*Polygonatum multiflorum*) *b* Remains of the flowering stem of the present year *b'* Lateral bud, which will produce the flowering stem of the next year *c, c'* Scars produced by the decay of the flowering stems of the two preceding years *r, r'* Rootlets

from its upper. These stems sometimes creep for a long distance in this way, and have their upper surface then marked by scars (fig. 59, *c, c'*), which are caused by the falling off of

former leaves, or of aerial herbaceous stems or flower-stalks, by which character they may be commonly distinguished, even when in a dried state, from true roots. Such stems are found in the Iris, Sweet-flag, Ginger, Turmeric, Solomon's Seal, Fern, and many other plants. In some cases these rhizomes are placed in a vertical direction in the earth (*erect rhizomes*), and they then bear a great resemblance to roots, as in the Devil's-bit Scabious (*Scabiosa succisa*), where such a rhizome is commonly but erroneously known as a *præmorse root* (fig 61).

The rhizome may continue to elongate at its apex throughout its life as in the Blacken Fern, or the apex may grow out into an aerial shoot, while a bud is formed laterally in the axil

FIG 60.

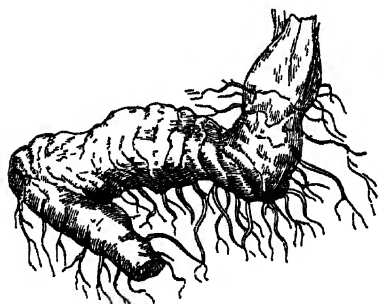


FIG 61

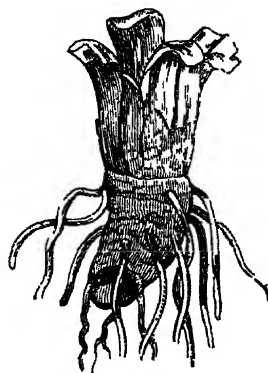


Fig 60 Contorted rhizome of Bistort (*Polygonum bistorta*)—Fig 61
Præmorse rhizome of the Devil's bit Scabious (*Scabiosa succisa*)

of a leaf at its base which continues the growth in length, causing the formation of a sympodium, as in Solomon's Seal (fig 59).

f. *The Phylloclade*—In some plants the leaves are very feebly developed and soon fall off, or are modified into spinous or needle-like processes. In such cases the stem performs the functions of the leaves, becoming green and assuming a more or less flattened form. Such a stem is called a *phylloclade*. Examples may be seen in many Cactuses, where the stem is either globular, or composed of flattened or round joints, or of winged columns. In certain Liliacæ the phylloclade takes the form of an ordinary foliage leaf, from which it can be distinguished by bearing leaves and flowers, either on its margins or at some

point on its surface. Such a branch consists only of one internode, it is soft and pointless in *Myrsiphyllum*, firm, hard, and spiny at its apex in *Ruscus aculeatus*. Its stem-character can be seen also from its arising from the axil of the true leaf, which is very small and soon falls off. Phylloclades of this kind have also been called *cladodes*.

g *The Spine or Thorn*—It sometimes happens that a leaf-bud, instead of developing as usual, so as to form a symmetrical leaf-bearing branch, becomes arrested in its growth, and forms a hardened simple or branched projection terminating in a more or less acute point, and usually without leaves, as in Thorns (fig. 62), *Gleditschia* (fig. 63), and many other plants. Such an irre-

FIG 62

FIG 63

FIG 64

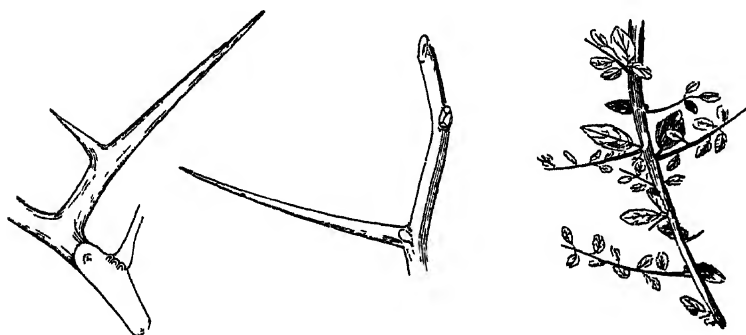


Fig 62 Branching spine of the Honey Locust (*Gleditschia*)—Fig 63 Spine of a species of Thorn—Fig 64 Leafy spines of the common Sloe

gularly developed branch is called a *spine* or *thorn*. That the spines are really modified branches is proved not only by their structure, which is exactly the same as the stem or branch upon which they are placed, but also by their position in the axil of leaves, by them sometimes bearing leaves, as in the Sloe (fig 64) and Spiny Rest-harrow; and by their being frequently changed into ordinary leaf-bearing branches by cultivation, as in the Apple and Pear. Spines are sometimes confounded with prickles, but they are readily distinguished from these by their structure and connection with the internal parts of the stem, the prickles being merely formed of hardened parenchyma, arising immediately from, and in connection only with, the epidermal tissue and layer of cells beneath.

h. *The Tendril*—Another irregularly developed branch is the *tendril* or *cirrus* this term is applied to a thread-like leafless branch, which is twisted in a spiral direction, as in the Passion-flower (*fig. 65, v, v*) It is one of those contrivances of nature by means of which weak plants are enabled to rise into the air by attaching themselves to neighbouring bodies for support. Tendrils may be also observed in the Vine (*fig 66, v, v, v*), where they are the terminations of separate axes

Tendrils are occasionally produced from leaves and some other organs of the plant, these peculiarities will be referred to

FIG 65

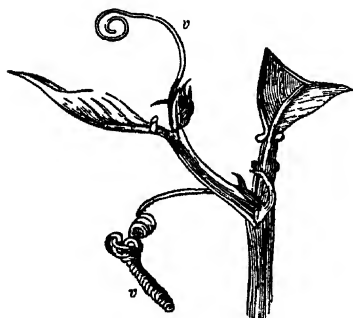


FIG 66.

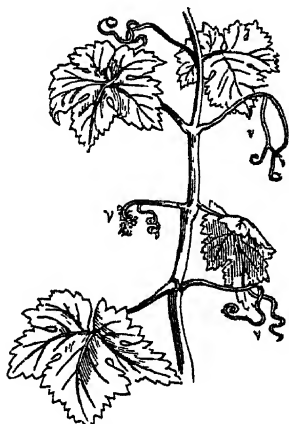


Fig 65 A portion of the stem of *Passiflora aquatica* *v, v* Tendrils
Fig 66 Part of the stem of the Vine *v, v, v* Tendrils

hereafter, in the description of those organs of which they are respectively modifications

2 SUBTERRANEAN MODIFICATIONS OF THE STEM AND BRANCHES—All these modifications of the stem and branches were formerly confounded with roots They are distinguished, however, from roots, either by the presence of buds, or of scales (*cataphyllary leaves*), or by the presence of scars on their surface which are produced by the falling off of former leaves or buds The different kinds of aerial stems described above, when partially subterranean, may be also distinguished in a similar manner from roots

a *The Creeping Stem* (*fig. 67*).—This kind of stem is a

slender branch which runs along beneath the surface of the earth, emitting small roots from its lower side, and buds from its upper, in the same manner as the rhizome, and it is considered by many botanists as a variety of that stem. The only differences existing between the creeping stem as defined above and the rhizome, are its more slender form, its commonly greater length, and its entirely subterranean course. The Sand Sedge (*Carex arenaria*) (fig. 67), and the Couch Grass (*Triticum repens*), afford good examples of this stem. In some instances such stems serve important purposes in nature, thus those of the Sand Sedge or *Carex*, by spreading through the sand of the seashore, and in this way binding it together, prevent it from

FIG 67



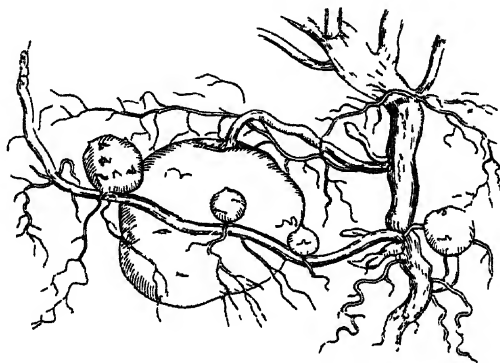
Fig 67 Creeping stem of the Sand Carex (*Carex arenaria*) 1 Terminal bud by which the stem continues to elongate 2, 3, 4 Shoots produced from former buds.

being washed away by the receding waves. Others, like those of the Couch Grass, are the pest of the agriculturist, who finds it very difficult to destroy such stems by cutting them into pieces, for as every node is capable of developing a leaf-bud and roots, each of the pieces into which they will then be divided may become an independent individual, and therefore such a process, instead of destroying the plants, only serves the purpose of still further multiplying them by placing the separated parts under more favourable circumstances for development.

b *The Tuber* (figs. 68 and 69).—This is a subterranean stem or branch, arrested in its growth, and excessively enlarged by the deposition of starch or other nutritious substance in its tissue. It has upon its surface a variable number of little buds, or *eyes* as they are sometimes called, from which new

plants are ultimately formed. The presence of these buds indicates its nature as a kind of stem. This stem-like nature of the tuber is also clearly proved by the practice commonly

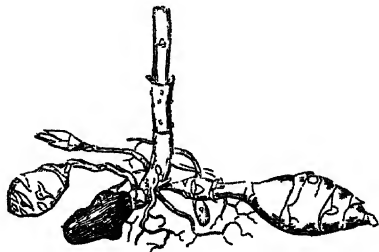
FIG 68

FIG 68 Tubers of the common Potato (*Solanum tuberosum*)

adopted for propagating potatoes, the tuber being cut into pieces, each piece containing one or more buds. When these pieces are placed under favourable circumstances for development, the buds are at first nourished by the matter which surrounds them, and are thus enabled to put forth roots and obtain nourishment for themselves, and in this manner to form independent plants. The Potato (fig 68) and Jerusalem Artichoke (fig 69) afford good illustrations of tubers.

In certain plants, such as some epiphytic Orchids, a portion of the sub-aerial stem may be thickened, the thickening sometimes being confined to one internode, sometimes extending to more than one. This thickening, which resembles a tuber, is often spoken of as a *pseudobulb* (fig. 33, b).

FIG 69

FIG 69 Tubers of the Jerusalem Artichoke (*Helianthus tuberosus*)

c The Bulb—This is a shortened, usually subterranean stem or branch, generally in the form of a rounded or flattened plate or disc (*figs* 70–72, *a*), which bears on its surface a number of fleshy scales or cataphyllary leaves; or it may be considered as a subterranean bud of a scaly nature which sends off roots or rootlets from below (*fig.* 72, *b*), and a flowering stem upwards (*fig* 70, *p*, and *figs* 71 and 72, *d*). The scales are generally more or less thickened by deposition of nutritive matters, these, therefore, serve as reservoirs of nutriment for the future use of the plant, just as in other cases the enlarged stems and roots serve a similar purpose. The true bulb is only found in Monocotyledons, as in the Lily (*figs* 71 and 72), Onion (*fig* 73), and Tulip. The scales of a bulb, like the

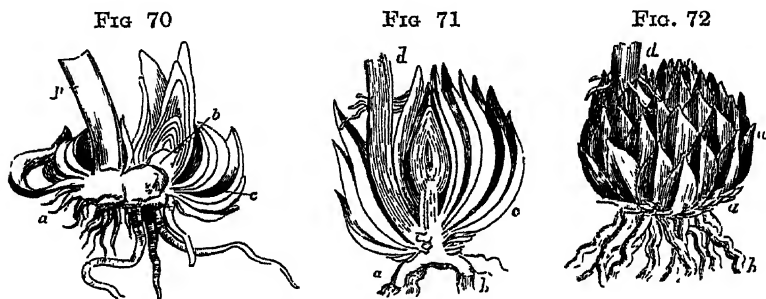


Fig 70 Vertical section of the scaly bulb of the Lily *a* Shortened axis or stem *b* Lateral bulb or clove *p* Flowering stem *c* Scales—*Fig* 71 Vertical section of the scaly bulb of the Lily—*Fig* 72 Scaly bulb of the Lily *a* Shortened axis or stem *b* Fibrous roots *c* Scales *d* Flowering stem The letters refer to the same parts in the two latter figures.

leaves of a branch, have the power of developing in their axils new bulbs (*fig* 70, *b*), these are called by gardeners *cloves*, and their presence is an additional proof of the homology of a bulb with a branch or bud.

There are two kinds of bulbs commonly distinguished by botanists, namely the *tunicated* (*fig* 73), and the *scaly* (*figs.* 71 and 72). The *tunicated bulb* is well seen in the Onion (*fig* 73) and Squill. In this kind of bulb the inner scales, which are thick and fleshy, enclose each other in a concentric manner, and are covered externally by thin and membranous ones, which form a covering or *tunic* to them, and hence the name *tunicated* or *coated*, which is applied to it. In the *scaly* or *naked* bulb, as it is also called (*figs.* 71 and 72), there are

no outer dry scales, but it is composed of thick, fleshy, more or less flattened leaves, which simply overlap one another.

The young bulbs (*cloves*) (*fig 70, b*), which are developed in the axils of the scales of bulbs, either remain attached to their parent, which they then commonly destroy by absorbing all its stored-up nutriment, or more commonly they become separated in the course of growth, and form independent plants.

In the axils of the leaves of certain plants, such as some species of Lily (*fig 74, a, a*), the Coalwort (*Dentaria bulbifera*), and Pilewort (*Ranunculus Ficaria*), small conical or rounded fleshy bodies are sometimes produced, which are of the

FIG 73

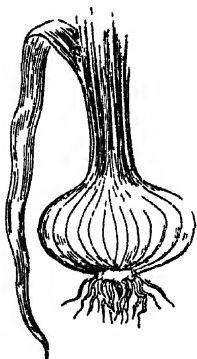


FIG 74



FIG 73 Tunicated bulb of the Onion — FIG 74 Stem of a species of Lily (*Lilium bulbiferum*) bearing bulbils or bulblets, *a, a*, in the axils of its leaves

nature of bulbs, and are hence called *aerial bulbs* from their position, or from their smaller size *bulbils* or *bulblets*. They differ from ordinary buds in their fleshy nature, and by spontaneously separating from their parent, and producing new individuals when placed under favourable circumstances, and from true bulbs from their small size and aerial position. These aerial bulbs are not confined, as is the case with true bulbs, to Monocotyledons, as may be seen by the examples given

d. *The Corm* — This form of stem, like the true bulb, is chiefly found in Monocotyledons, as, for example, the Colchicum (*fig. 77*), and Crocus (*figs. 75 and 76*). It is an enlarged solid subterranean stem, of a more or less rounded or oval

figure, and commonly covered externally by a few thin membranous scales or cataphyllary leaves. It may be considered as

FIG 75

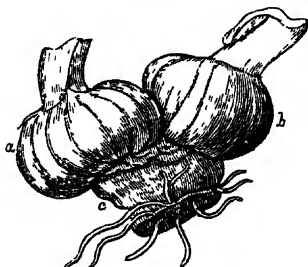


FIG 76

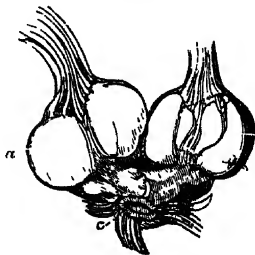


Fig 75 Corms of *Crocus sativus* *a, b* The new corms, arising from *c*, the apex of the old or parent corm — Fig 76 Vertical section of the former. The letters refer to the same parts

a kind of bulb, in which the stem is much enlarged, and the scales reduced to thin membranes. Practically a corm may be distinguished from a bulb by its solid nature (*fig. 76, a, b*),

the bulb having flattened imbricated or concentrically arranged scales. The corm is known to be a kind of stem by producing from its surface one or more buds, in the form of young corms, as in the *Crocus* (*fig. 75, a, b*), where they proceed from the apex, *c*, and ultimately destroy their parent by feeding upon its accumulated nutriment. These new corms, in a future year, also produce others near their apex, and these by developing at the expense of their parents also destroy them in like manner, and these again form other corms by which they are themselves destroyed. In this manner the new corms, as they are successively developed from the apex of the old corms, come gradually nearer and nearer to the surface of the earth.

FIG 77

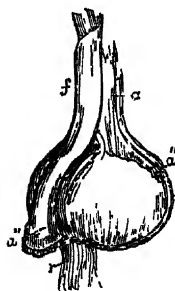


Fig 77 Colchicum
f Roots or root-
lets f Leaf a
Shrivelled remains
of last year's corm
a' Corm of the
present year a'''
Commencement of
the corm of next
year

In the *Colchicum* (*fig. 77*), the new corm *a'''* is developed on one side of the old corm near its base, instead of from the apex, as in the *Crocus*. This also feeds upon its parent, and ultimately destroys it, and is in like manner destroyed the next

year by its own progeny. Thus, in taking up such a corm carefully, we find (*fig 77*), *a*, the shrivelled corm of last year, and *a''*, that of the present season, which, if cut vertically, shows *a'''*, the corm in a young condition for the next year.

Another type of the corm is found in the *Cyclamen*. It is a fleshy expansion of the base of the seedling stem which thickens and enlarges year by year, but does not lengthen, thus becoming a broad thick body. The thickening is confined to the first internode. It bears annually leaves and flowers from its apex, which may be found at the centre of the upper surface. The lower surface produces roots. ~~The kind of corm is always~~ naked, producing no leaves except ~~those of the apical bud~~.

SECTION III — ~~THE STEM~~ (continued)

B ~~The~~ Leaves

1 GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF ~~THE PARTS OF THE LEAF~~

We have seen that the vegetative appendages which arise upon the stem are of two kinds, those which are like and those which are unlike the axis itself. A leaf may be defined as an appendage borne upon an axis from which it differs in its structure and organisation. Like the stem itself it is capable of branching, and in such branching similar modes of origin to those of the branches of the axis may be observed. The ultimate shape of the leaf indeed may be traced to its behaviour in this respect. It differs from the stem in the degree to which this branching may be carried, seldom showing branches of more than the second or third order.

The part of the stem or branch from which a leaf arises is called a node, and the space between two nodes an internode. The portion of the leaf next the stem is termed the base, the opposite extremity the apex, and the lines connecting the base and apex the margins. The leaf being commonly of a flattened nature, has only two surfaces, but when *succulent* it has frequently more than two surfaces. The terms upper and lower are applied to the two surfaces of ordinary leaves, because in by far the greater number of plants such leaves are placed horizontally, so that one surface is turned upwards, and the other downwards. There are certain leaves, however, which are placed vertically, as those of some species of *Eucalyptus*, in which case the margins are turned upwards and downwards instead of the surfaces. The angle formed by the union of the

upper surface of the leaf with the stem is called the *axil*, and everything which arises out of that point is said to be *axillary* to the leaf, if anything springs from the stem above, or below the axil, it is *extra-axillary*, or, as more generally described when above, *supra-axillary*, when below, *infra-axillary*.

Duration and Fall of the Leaf.—The leaf varies as regards its duration, and receives different names accordingly. Thus, when it falls off soon after its appearance, it is said to be *fugacious* or *caducous*, if it lasts throughout the season in which it is developed, it is *deciduous* or *annual*, or if beyond a single season, or until new leaves are developed, so that the plant is never without leaves, it is *persistent*, *evergreen*, or *perennial*.

The parts of the leaf.—The axis of the leaf may be termed a *phyllodium*; it is capable of very varied development, and its region of active growth is seldom altogether apical as in the stem axis. It commences apically, but this apical growth is usually superseded by a basal growth, which continues after the former has ceased. This is especially well seen in the long narrow leaves of many Monocotyledons.

In the phyllodium three regions may be distinguished. The so-called *leaf-base*, or *hypopodium*, including that region which is attached to the stem, the *lamina*, or *epipodium*, which is the usually flattened terminal portion, which forms what is often alluded to generally as the leaf proper; and an intermediate portion, the *mesopodium* or *petiole*. Either the epipodium or the mesopodium may be absent.

The leaf in one or all of these regions generally takes the form of a flattened expansion, owing to the distribution of growth in the phyllodium leading to the development of a thin wing along two of its sides in a lateral plane. This wing is usually though not always confined to the epipodium, giving rise to the leaf-blade or lamina. The branches of the epipodium are also winged, and the relative development of the branches and their wings causes the various forms of the leaf-blade.

In the simplest forms of leaf the phyllodium does not show any division into the three regions spoken of. It is then a cylindrical structure as in *Pilularia*, or a flattened one with no evident wings as in many Monocotyledons, or a winged one as in some of the Gymnosperms. When it branches, the branches usually arise upon the epipodium, and are developed either acropetally or basipetally according to the position of the growing part.

In leaves which show a differentiation into the three regions spoken of, each region shows certain peculiarities.

The Hypopodium or Leaf-base—This is often very difficult to distinguish from the stem. The tissues of both are continuous, and unless some outward peculiarity appears the two cannot accurately be delimited. Very often, however, the point of union of the two is marked by a swelling of the hypopodium forming a sort of cushion called a *pulvinus*, and in some cases it appears as a definite articulation. When the leaf-base is broad, this swelling extends for a considerable distance round

FIG 78

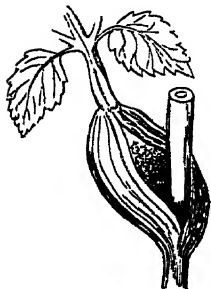


FIG 79



FIG 80



Fig 78 Amplexicaul base of the leaf in Fool's Parsley — Fig 79 Sheathing leaf of a Grass — Fig 80 Decurrent leaf base of a species of Thistle
a Leaf-base

the stem. Such leaves can be detached very readily and leave a kind of scar which can be noticed on the stem after the leaf has fallen off (fig 37, page 27). This cushion may form a kind of sheath, almost embracing the stem, as in the common *Pelargonium*. It may be somewhat membranous and completely encircle the stem, as in the Fool's Parsley (fig. 78). These modes of arrangement are known as *semi-amplexicaul* and *amplexicaul*, respectively. In some plants the leaf-base is prolonged down the stem as a winged expansion, as in some Thistles, when it is said to be *decurrent* (figs 80 and 81).

Frequently the leaf-base bears a pair of lateral branches,

which often become winged like the epipodium, but may assume other forms. These are known as *stipules*. They have the same structure as the blades of leaves, and are liable to similar modifications as regards venation, apex, incision, outline margins, surface, &c. The stipules are often wanting, and the leaves are then said to be *exstipulate*, when present, the leaves are *stipulate*. They are often overlooked from their small size, while in other cases they are very large, as in the Pansy (*fig. 83*), and in the common Pea (*fig. 84*). In the leaves of *Lathyrus Aphaca* (*fig. 186*) there are no true blades or leaflets,

FIG 81

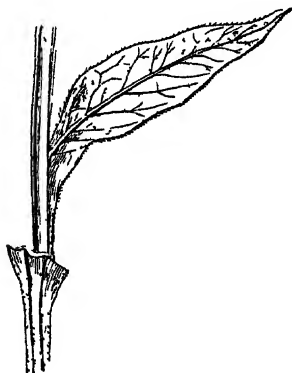


FIG 82

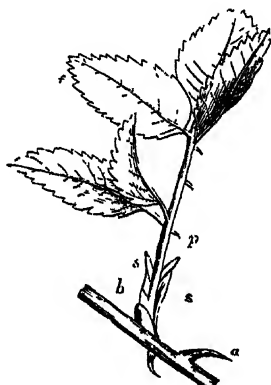


Fig. 81 Decurrent leaves of the Comfrey. — *Fig. 82* A portion of a branch, *f*, of the common Rose (*Rosa canina*). *a* A prickly *b* Bud in the axil of a compound leaf, *f*, with stalked leaflets *p* Petiole *s, s* Adnate or adherent stipules

but the stipules, *s, s*, are here very large and perform all their functions

Stipules either remain attached as long as the lamina, when they are said to be *persistent*, or they fall off soon after its expansion, in which case they are *deciduous*. In the Beech, the Fig, the Magnolia, &c., they form the *tegmenta* or protective coverings of the buds, and fall off as these open (page 28)

The stipules vary in their position with regard to the petiole and to each other, and have received different names accordingly. Thus, when they adhere to each side of the base of the petiole, as in the Rose (*fig. 82, s, s*), they are said to be *adnate*, *adherent*, or *petiolar*. When they remain as little

leafy expansions on each side of the base of the petiole, but quite distinct from it, as in many Willows and the Pansy (fig 83), they are called *caulinary*. When the stipules are large, it sometimes happens that they meet on the opposite side of the stem or branch from which the leaf grows, and become united more or less by their outer margins, and thus form one stipule, as in the *Astragalus*, they are then said to be

FIG 83



FIG 84



Fig 83 Petiolate leaf of Pansy (*Viola tricolor*) with large caulinary stipules at its base — Fig 84 A portion of the flowering stem of the common Pea, with a pinnate leaf terminated by a tendril, and having two large stipules at its base, the lower margins of which are dentate

synochreate or *opposite* (fig 85, s), if under similar circumstances they cohere by their inner margins, as in *Melanthus annuus* and *Houttuynia cordata* (fig 86, s), they form a solitary stipule which is placed in the axil of the leaf, and is accordingly termed *axillary*, and if such stipules cohere by both outer and inner margins so as to form a sheath which encircles the stem above the insertion of the leaf (fig 87, d), as in the Rhubarb, and most other plants of the order Poly-

gonaceæ, they form what is termed an *ochrea* or *intrafoliaceous stipule*

All the above kinds of stipules occur in plants with alternate

FIG 85

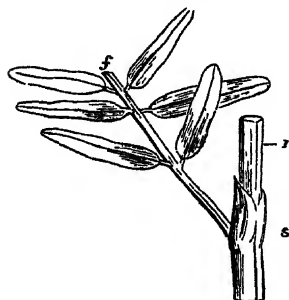


FIG 86



FIG 85 A portion of the stem, *r*, and leaf, *f*, of the *Astragalus Onobrychis*
s Synochreate or opposite stipule — FIG 86 A portion of the stem, *r*,
 and leaf, *f*, of *Houttuynia cordata* *s* Axillary stipule

leaves (see page 80), in which such appendages are far more common than in those with opposite leaves. When the latter

FIG 87

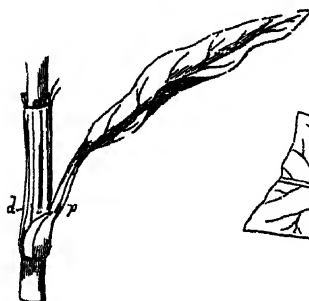


FIG 88

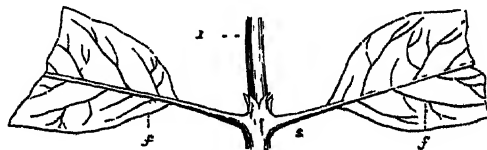


FIG 87 Leaf and piece of the stem of *Polygonum hydropiper* *l* Lamina
 or blade *p* Petiole *d* Sheath — FIG 88 A portion of a branch, *r*,
 with two opposite leaves, *f*, *f*, of *Cephalanthus occidentalis* *s* Interpetiolar
 stipule

plants have stipules these are generally situated in the intervals between the petioles on each side, and are hence termed *interpetiolar*. In such cases it frequently happens that the opposing

stipules of each leaf cohere more or less completely by their outer margins so as to form but one interpetiolar stipule on each side of the stem (*fig. 88, s*), as is the case in the Cinchonas, the Coffee, and other plants of the natural order Rubiaceæ to which they belong

The stipules are sometimes modified to form spines, much resembling the spines or thorns of the stem, as in *Robinia* (*fig 89*) In many species of *Smilax* they take the form of tendrils (*fig 90*)

Stipules, as we have already noticed, are not always present in plants, but their presence or absence in any particular plant

FIG 89

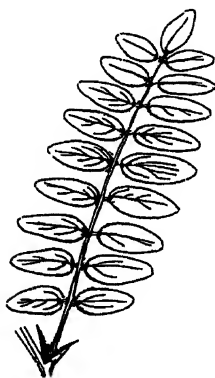


FIG 90

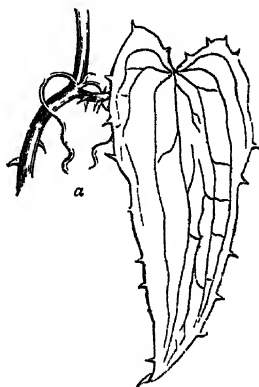


Fig 89 Compound leaf of *Robinia Pseud-acacia*, with spiny stipules at its base — *Fig 90* Modified stipules of *Smilax*, forming tendrils, *a*

is always constant, and although the appearance and arrangement of them also vary in different plants, they are always uniform in those of the same species, and even, in some cases, throughout entire natural orders, and thus they frequently supply important distinctive characters in such plants and orders. Thus the plants of the Loganiaceæ are distinguished from those of the allied order Apocynaceæ by possessing interpetiolar stipules; and the plants of the Polygonaceæ usually from those of allied orders by intrafoliaceous stipules, or ochreae.

Stipules are very rare in Monocotyledons, among the Cryptogams they are only present in the Marattiaceæ, a group of the Ferns.

The Mesopodium or Petiole.—According to the presence or absence of this portion of the leaf-axis, leaves are said to be stalked or sessile. When the petiole is developed it is more or less cylindrical as a rule, but frequently is almost semicircular in section, the upper surface being flattened and sometimes grooved. It may be very short or considerably elongated. In the Grasses it surrounds the stem in the form of a sheath (*fig 79*), and where the blade and petiole join there is found a membranous appendage, lying parallel to the blade. To this the name of *ligule* has been given. It is either entire or incised in various ways. In the Aspen (*Populus tremula*), the petiole is flattened in a line at right angles to the blade, and is thus one of

FIG 91

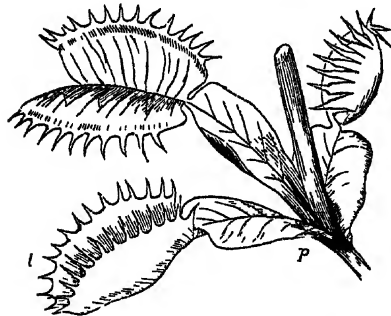


FIG 92.



Fig 91 A portion of the stem with some leaves of Venus's Fly-trap (*Dionaea muscipula*) *l* Lamina fringed with hairs, and hence said to be ciliated *p* Winged petiole — *Fig 92* Leaf of Orange (*Citrus Aurantium*) *p* Winged petiole articulated to the lamina *l*

the causes of the peculiar mobility of such leaves; while in other plants it is flattened in a horizontal direction. In water plants the petiole is frequently more or less dilated from the presence of a number of air cavities, as in *Pontederia*, such petioles by diminishing the specific gravity of the plants in which they are found, enable them to float readily in the water. In many plants the petiole is winged like the leaf-blade, though generally not to the same extent. Instances are found in the Orange (*fig. 92*) and the Venus's Fly-trap (*fig. 91*)

In some cases the epipodium is not developed, or falls off at a very early age. The petiole is then usually very strongly winged, and takes on the ordinary function of the blade. This is seen in some of the Leguminosæ; *Lathyrus Nissolia* of the

British flora is an instance. It is much more conspicuous in many of the Australian *Acacias*; some of their leaves show the ordinary pinnate form, others are similar with the petiole winged, and others show the winged petiole only, the epipodium having disappeared. Such a winged petiole is called a *phylloide*, and can be distinguished from a leaf-blade by the fact that its flattened surfaces are placed laterally to the stem. A phylloide must not be confused with the variety of stem previously described as a phylloclade.

The Epipodium or Leaf-blade—As already indicated, this part of the leaf shows a very great variety of form, ranging from a cylindrical outgrowth to a very much dissected and flattened

FIG 93

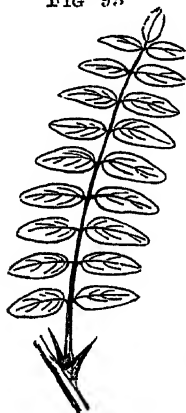


FIG 94



FIG 93 Imparipinnate or unequally pinnate leaf of *Robinia*, with spiny stipules — FIG 94 Equally or abruptly pinnate leaf

one. It usually consists of an axis which shows more or less evidence of branching, the axis itself and its several branches becoming winged, or remaining more or less cylindrical. Indeed, the epipodium of the leaf is a branch system rather than a single outgrowth.

The main axis, though often winged, may be continued as a supporting organ on which the branches known as *pinnæ* can be recognised. The branches of the first order also frequently remain cylindrical, and their secondary branches are the only flattened portions. Sometimes, as in the leaf of the Fennel, all the branches are cylindrical, and there is no flattened expansion, the leaf appearing almost filamentous. Similar filamentous leaves are found in some of the Water Crowsfeet.

The branching of the epipodium proceeds on the same lines as that of the stem, it is dichotomous in some of the Hymenophyllaceæ, a family of Ferns, it is monopodial in many Dicotyledons, where the branches are produced either acropetally or basipetally, according to the position of the region of active growth, it is cymose in many other Dicotyledons. It is usual to describe the types of leaves derived from these modes of branching as *pinnate* or *palmate* respectively, both showing considerable variety of form.

When the epipodium axis remains cylindrical, and its branches of the first order become separately winged, the appearance is presented of a number of small winged expansions, each attached to the axis and each apparently independent. Such a leaf is called *compound*. According to the nature

FIG. 95

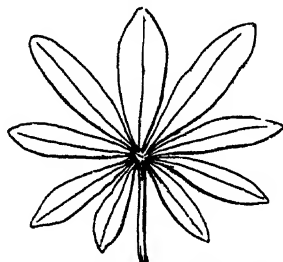


FIG. 96.



Fig 95 Digitate leaf of a Lupin (Palmate type) — Fig 96 Digitate leaf of Potentilla

of the branching we get the *pinnate* or the *palmate* leaf, the separate branches being called *leaflets*. When the apex of the epipodium of the pinnate leaf is winged like the branches, the leaf is said to be *impinnate*, when there is no terminal leaflet, it is *paripinnate*. Various forms of leaves of both types will be described later.

When the axis is winged as well as its branches, the wings of both are usually more or less united, giving rise to the appearance of a single much-divided lamina. Such leaves, however much divided, are classed as *simple* leaves. In many cases with much branched epipodia the main axis and the secondary axes are not winged, while the tertiary axes and the ultimate branches are both winged, and show a fusion of the wings, as in fig. 97. Such a leaf shows a combination of

the simple and compound forms, it is common among the Umbelliferae

The fusion of the wings of the axis and its branches shows almost every stage of completeness from the compound leaf to the simplest flattened expansion. Indeed, in many of the latter the only indication of branching that can be noticed is found in the disposition of the vascular bundles which enter each branch, giving rise to pinnate or palmate venation, as will be described later. When the fusion of the wings is not complete, the several branches are known as *lobes*. It is usual to give different names to the apparent divisions of the leaf based on the degree of the fusion, thus, if they reach to about midway between the margins

FIG 97

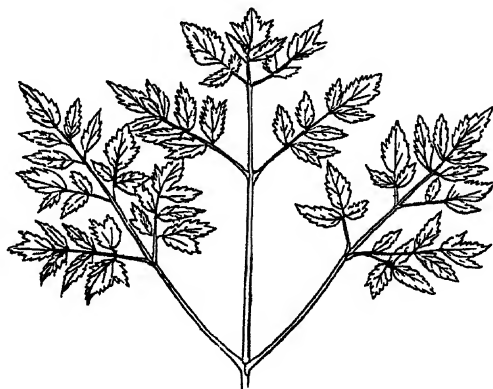


Fig 97 Tri-pinnate leaf

and midrib (fig 113), or petiole (fig 102), they are properly called *lobes*, and the intervals between them *fissures*, or in composition the term *-fid* is used, and the leaf is also said to be *-cleft*, if nearer to the base, or midrib (fig 99), they are termed *partitions*, and the leaf is *-partite*, if almost down to the base, or midrib, they are called *segments* (fig. 100), and the leaf is *dissected*, or in composition *-sected*

In describing the above leaves we say that they are *bifid* or *two-cleft*, *trifid* or *three-cleft*, *quincifid* or *five-cleft*, *septemfid* or *seven-cleft*, and *multifid* or *many-cleft*, according to the number of their fissures, or *two-lobed*, *three-lobed*, *four-lobed*, &c., from the number of their lobes. Or, a leaf is also said to be *tripartite* or *trisected*, &c, in the same manner, according to

the number of segments. When the axis of the epipodium bears monopodially branches of the first order, which give rise in turn to the pinnæ, and all are winged, the wings showing similar

FIG. 98

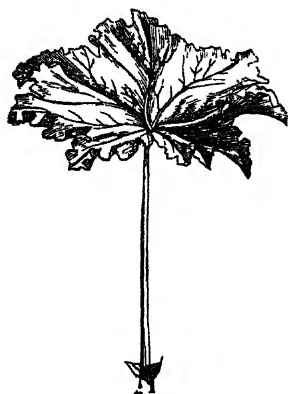


FIG. 99



FIG. 100



FIG. 101.



FIG. 102



Fig 98 Crisped or curled leaf of a species of Mallow (*Malva*) — Fig 99 Pinnatifid leaf of a species of Valerian (*Valeriana dioica*) — Fig 100 Pinnatisected leaf of a species of Poppy (*Papaver argemone*) — Fig 101 A decomposed leaf — Fig 102 Palmate leaf of a species of Passion flower (*Passiflora*)

degrees of fusion to those described above, we have forms which are described as *bipinnatifid*, *bipinnatifid*, or *bipinnatisected* respectively. Further degrees of branching and fusion are indicated by the terms *tripinnatifid*, &c. When the branching is

very complete, and the ultimate wings but little developed, the leaf is called *decompound*. When the branching is not monopodial but cymose, we have *palmate*, *palmatifid*, or *palmatisected* leaves, the degree of fusion between the wings of the branches being thereby indicated. In such leaves the primary axis of the phyllopodium does not enter into the composition of the lamina. Cymose branch systems sometimes show branches of the third order, as in the *pedate* or *pedatipartite* leaf (*fig* 104)

It is not unusual to find both types of branching represented in the same leaf. Frequently in the palmate varieties we find that while the main branches arise cymosely, each forms a monopodium. The nature of the branching may generally be ascertained by an inspection of the arrangement of the veins or vascular bundles, as shown in *fig* 103, the palmatifid leaf of the

FIG 103



FIG 104

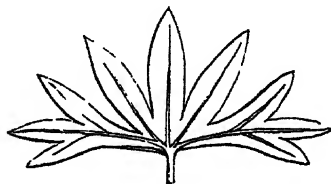


Fig 103 Palmatifid leaf of the Castor-oil Plant (*Ricinus communis*) — *Fig* 104 Pedatipartite leaf

Castor-oil plant. Here the phyllopodium gives rise cymosely to seven branches, each of which develops monopodially.

Generally the branches of the epipodium all lie in one plane, so that the leaf is flattened with its face towards the stem. In a particular variety of the palmate form known as the *peltate* leaf (*fig* 105) this rule is departed from, the petiole being apparently attached to the centre of the leaf-blade, the plane of which is thus almost at a right angle to the direction of the stalk. This is due to the fact that the younger branches grow out in front of the petiole, instead of in the usual lateral plane, and then wings being coherent with each other, the petiole becomes apparently attached to the middle of the lamina.

When the epipodium remains cylindrical, and bears only a few branches of the first order which are winged, constituting a

number of leaflets, these may show at their bases certain outgrowths resembling the stipules of the primary leaf-base. These are known as *stipels*, they are present in certain Leguminosæ as *Phaseolus*.

When the mesopodium or petiole is absent, the hypopodium or leaf-base may be winged, and its wings continuous with those of the lamina. The stem thus seems to be surrounded by the expanded base of the latter. If two leaves arise on the stem at the same node, their wings sometimes coalesce. We have thus formed the varieties known as *auriculate*, *perfoliate*, or *connate* leaves (figs. 106 and 107).

The flattened portion of the epipodium is always found to be strengthened and supported by certain strands of woody tissue which traverse it in various directions. These are in thin leaves

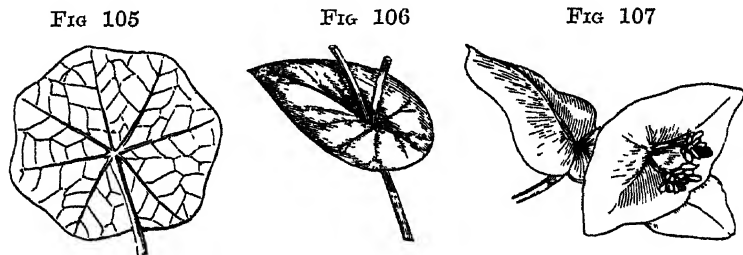


Fig 105 Peltate leaf of *Thopceolum* — Fig 106 Perfoliate leaf of a species of Hare's-ear (*Bupleurum rotundifolium*) — Fig 107 Connate leaves of a species of Honeysuckle (*Lonicera Caprifolium*)

visible as projections on the under surface, but in thick or succulent ones they are embedded in the substance of the blade. These strands are known as the *veins*, and their arrangement constitutes the *venation* of the leaf. The latter depends broadly on the mode of branching which characterises the epipodia.

There are two marked modifications of venation. In the *first modification* the fibro-vascular tissue as it enters the lamina is either continued as the *midrib* (fig 108), or it divides into two or more ribs (figs 109 and 110), and from this midrib or ribs other veins are given off, and from them, in like manner, smaller ramifications or *venulets* arise, which unite with one another so as to form a kind of network. Or, in the *second modification*, the fibro-vascular tissue is either continued as a midrib from the base to the apex of the lamina, giving off from its sides other veins, which run parallel to the margins, and

which are simply connected by unbranched veinlets (*figs.* 111, *b*, and 118), or it divides at once into several veins or ribs, which proceed from the base to the apex (*fig.* 116), or margins

FIG 108

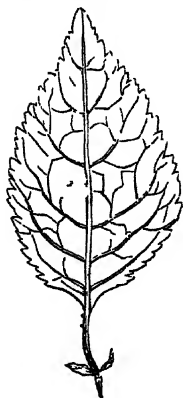


FIG 110

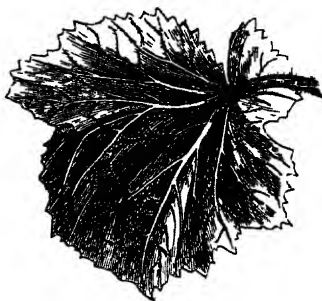


FIG 109

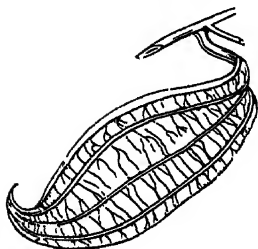


FIG 111

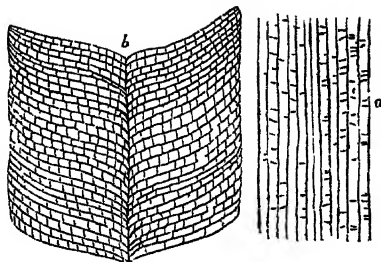


Fig. 108 Leaf of the Cherry with lamina, petiole, and stipules. The lamina has serrate margins, and a large central vein or midrib is seen to proceed from the petiole to the apex of the leaf, and to give off from its sides the other veins (*pinnately veined*).—*Fig.* 109 Ribbed leaf of Cinnamon with entire margins.—*Fig.* 110 Leaf of the Melon with dentate margins. The venation is said to be radiate or palmately veined.—*Fig.* 111 *a* Parallel venation of a grass, this variety of venation is commonly called straight veined. *b* A variety of parallel venation sometimes termed curve veined, as seen in the Banana.

(*fig.* 117) of the blade, more or less parallel to one another, and are in like manner connected only by simple parallel unbranched veinlets (*fig.* 111, *a*). The leaves which exhibit the first modi-

fication of venation are called *reticulated* or *netted-veined* leaves, and occur universally in Dicotyledons, and those which present the second modification are termed *parallel-veined* leaves, and are characteristic with some few exceptions of Monocotyledons

(1) *Varieties of Reticulated or Netted Venation*

There are two principal varieties of this kind of venation, namely, the *feather-veined* or *pinnately veined*, and the *radiated* or *palmately veined*.

FIG 112.

FIG 113

FIG 114

FIG 115.

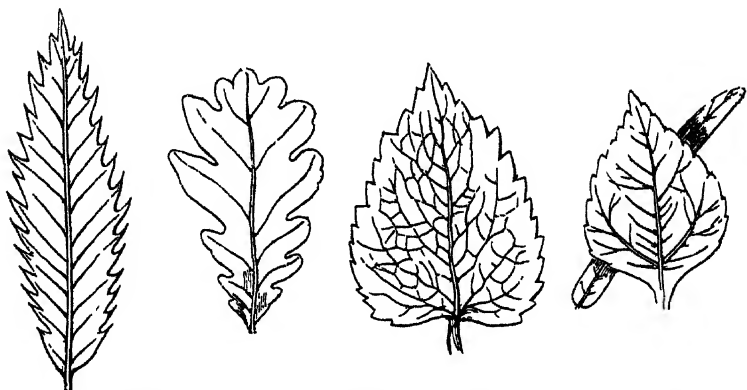


Fig 112 Feather-veined leaf of the Spanish Chestnut — Fig 113 Feather-veined leaf of the Oak Its lobes are arranged in a pinnatifid manner — Fig 114 Leaf of the Dead-nettle The venation is the true netted, and its margins are serrate — Fig 115 a Linear leaf b Triple ribbed leaf of the common Sunflower

A *Feather-veined* or *Pinnately veined* — In this variety the midrib either gives off lateral veins which proceed at once to the margins (figs 112 and 113), and are connected by numerous branching veinlets, as in the leaves of the Beech, Spanish Chestnut, Holly, Oak, or the midrib gives off branches from its sides, which proceed at first towards the margins, and then curve towards the apex, terminating finally within the margins, with which they are connected by small veins, as in the Dead-nettle (fig 114), and Lilac.

B. *Radiated* or *Palmately veined* — This name is applied to a leaf which possesses two or more ribs that arise from at or

near the base of the lamina, and diverge from one another towards its margins, and are connected by branching veins, as in the Melon (*fig. 110*) and Castor-oil plant (*fig. 108*). The *ribbed venation*, as seen in the Cinnamon (*fig. 109*), is but a modification of this variety, in which the ribs, instead of diverging from one another, run in a curved manner from at

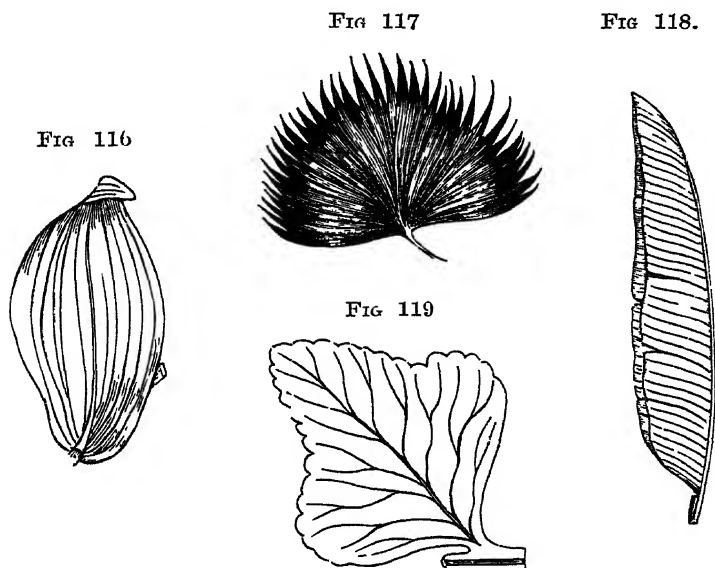


Fig. 116 Leaf showing the variety of parallel venation usually called straight-veined, the margins are entire—*Fig. 117* Straight-veined variety of parallel venation, as seen in the leaf of the Fan Palm (*Chamae-rops*)—*Fig. 118* Curve-veined variety of parallel venation, as seen in the Banana.—*Fig. 119* Forked venation of a Fern leaf, the margins are crenate

or near the base of the blade to the apex, towards which they converge, such ribs being connected together by branching veins.

(2) *Varieties of Parallel Venation.*

There are certain characteristic variations of parallel venation. Thus, the main veins may either proceed in a somewhat parallel direction from the base to the apex of the lamina, to

which point they converge more or less (*fig* 116), or they diverge from one another towards the circumference of the blade (*fig* 117) The leaves of Grasses, Lilies, and the common Flag may be taken as examples of the first variety, and those of many Palms (*fig* 117) of the second.

01, the leaves may have a prominent midrib, as in the feather-veined variety of reticulated venation, giving off from its sides along its whole length other veins, which proceed parallel to each other in a straight or curved direction towards, and lose themselves in, the margins (*figs* 118 and 111, *b*), and are connected, as in the last variety, by unbranched veinlets The Banana, the Plantain, and allied plants, furnish us with examples of this variety This latter variety is sometimes distinguished as the *curve-veined*, the former being commonly known as the *straight-veined* or *parallel-veined*

We have seen that the freedom or coalescence of the wings of the epipodium and those of its branches lead to the recognition of two apparently different types of leaf, the *simple* and the *compound* It will be convenient to discuss the peculiarities of these two kinds separately

Simple Leaves

The modifications which simple leaves present as regards their margins, shapes, and other variations of their blades are extremely numerous They are usually considered under five heads, as follows 1 Margins, 2 Incision; 3 Apex, 4 General Outline, 5 Form.

1 *Margins* — We have already stated that the condition of the margins is dependent upon the extent to which the wings of the epipodium and its branches are united Thus if the fusion of the wings of the several axes is complete and extends to their apices, so that the margins are perfectly even, or free from every kind of irregularity, the leaf is *entire* (*figs* 92 and 116), as in those of the Orchis order But when the margins are uneven we have several modifications, which are distinguished by characteristic terms. Thus, if the margins present sharp indentations like the teeth of a saw, and all point to the apex, the leaf is *serrate* (*figs* 114 and 142), as in the common Dead-nettle, or, if similar teeth point towards the base, the leaf is described as *retroserrate*, if these teeth are themselves serrate, it is *biserrate* (*figs* 120, *b*, and 131), as in the Elm, and Nettle-leaved Bell-flower, or when the margins are minutely serrate they are termed *serrulate*, as

in *Barosma serratifolia*. When the teeth are sharp and project almost or quite at right angles to the margin, the leaf is *dentate* or *toothed* (figs. 110 and 137), as in the Melon, and the lower leaves of the Corn Bluebottle, or when the teeth are themselves divided in a similar manner, it is *duplicato-dentate* (fig 120, c) When the teeth are rounded (figs 119 and 143) the leaf is *crenate*, as in the Horseradish, and Ground Ivy, or if these

FIG. 120

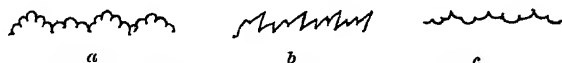


Fig 120 Diagram of the margins of leaves a Bicrenate b Biseriate
c Duplicato-dentate

teeth are themselves crenate it is *bicrenate* (fig 120, a); or when the leaf is minutely crenate it is said to be *crenulated*. When the margins present alternately deep concavities and convexities it is *sinuated*, as in some Oaks (fig 121) This kind of leaf may be regarded as an intermediate condition between a

FIG. 121



FIG. 122



Fig 121 Sinuated leaf of the Oak — Fig 122 Spiny leaf of the Holly (*Ilex Aquifolium*), with wavy margins.

toothed leaf and one that is pinnatifid (fig 113) When the margins are slightly sinuous or wavy, as in the Holly (fig 122), they are said to be *wavy* or *undulated*, or when the margins are very irregular, being twisted and curled, as in the Garden Endive, Curled Dock, and Curled Mint, they are called *crisp* or *curled* (fig. 98)

• 2. *Incision* — This term is employed when the margins of

the blades are more deeply divided than in the above instances. The divisions are then commonly called *lobes*. It is usual, however, to give different names to these lobes, according to the depth of the incisions by which they are produced. Thus, when the divisions between the lobes reach about midway between the margin and the midrib, the leaf is *-cleft* or *-fid*, if the incision is deeper, the leaf is *-partite*, if it is cleft almost to the midrib, it is *-sected*. We get a series of terms constructed from these terminations according to the number of the fissures, such as *bifid*, *tripartite*, *quadrisectioned* &c. Or, according to the description of the branching we have *pinnatifid* or *palmatifid*, &c. If the divisions are themselves incised in a similar manner to the original divisions of the lamina itself, the leaf is said to be

FIG 123

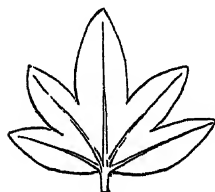


FIG 124.



Fig 123 Palmate leaf of a species of Passion-flower (*Passiflora*)
 Fig 124 Palmatifid leaf of the Castor oil Plant (*Ricinus communis*)

bipinnatifid, *bipinnatifid*, &c. Or, if the subdivisions of these are again divided in a similar manner, *tripinnatifid*, *tripinnatifid*, or *tripinnatifid*. Or, if the lamina is still further divided, the leaf is said to be *decomposed* or *laciniate*.

Certain modifications of these varieties have also received special names, thus, when a pinnately veined leaf is deeply divided, and the divisions are very close and narrow like the teeth of a comb (*fig 125*), it is said to be *pectinate*, as in the Water Milfoil; when the terminal lobe of a pinnately veined leaf is large and rounded, and the lateral lobes which are also more or less rounded become gradually smaller towards the base, it is *lyrate* or *lyre-shaped*, as in the common Turnip (*fig. 126*), when the terminal lobe is triangular, and the other lobes

which are also more or less of the same shape have their points directed downwards towards the base of the lamina, as in the Dandelion (*fig. 127*), the leaf is said to be *runcinate*, or when a lyrate leaf has but one deep recess on each side, so that it resembles a violin in shape, it is termed *panduriform* or *fiddle-shaped*, as in the Fiddle Dock (*fig. 128*)

Special names are also applied to certain modifications of palmately veined leaves as with those which are pinnately veined. Thus, when the blade of such a leaf is composed of

FIG 125

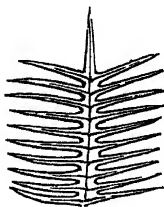


FIG 126

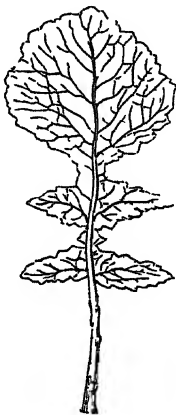


FIG 127.

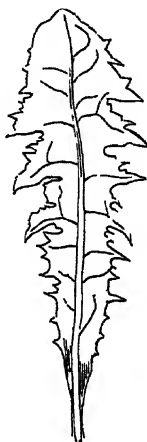


FIG 128



Fig. 125 Pectinate or comb shaped leaf — *Fig. 126* Lyrate leaf of the common Turnip (*Brassica Rapa*) — *Fig. 127* Runcinate leaf of the Dandelion (*Taraxacum officinale*) — *Fig. 128* Fiddle shaped leaf of *Rumex pulcher*

five or more branches whose wings are united about halfway from the base to the tip, so that the whole has a resemblance to the palm of the hand with spreading fingers, the leaf is termed *palmate*, as in some species of Passion-flower (*fig. 123*). If the union is less complete, as in the Castor-oil plant, the leaf is described as *palmatifid* (*fig. 124*). There is little difference between these two forms, and it is better to apply the term *palmate* to compound leaves. These forms lead on to the compound leaf already described as *digitate*. Other intermediate

forms occur. The *pedate* leaf is a variety of the palmate, the branching here is cymose, the apex of the epipodium forms the largest lobe; from under it a branch proceeds on each side, from under each of these a single branch is given off on the lateral flank, which itself bears another arising similarly. The wings of the epipodium and its branches are all united at their bases, but the union extends further towards the apices of the youngest lateral ones. The name is derived from a fanciful resemblance to the claw of a bird.

Besides the above modifications of palmately veined leaves, other variations also occur, in consequence of the lobes or segments of the lamina becoming themselves branched either in a pinnate or palmate manner, and terms are used accordingly,

FIG. 129

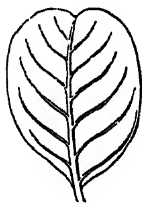


FIG. 130



Fig. 129 Leaflet of a species of *Cassia*. It is ovate in figure or outline, somewhat oblique at the base, and emarginate at its apex.—Fig. 130 Branch of the Tulip tree (*Liriodendron tulipifera*) with flower and leaves. The latter terminate abruptly, hence they are said to be *truncate*.

the application of which will be at once evident from what has been already stated.

3. *Apex*.—This varies much in the blades of different leaves. Thus the apex is *obtuse* or *blunt*, when it is rounded (figs. 138 and 140), as in the Primrose, it is *retuse* when it is obtuse with a broad shallow notch in the middle, as in the Red Whortleberry (*Vaccinium Vitis-idaea*) and the leaflets of Logwood, or when under the same circumstances the notch is sharp, or nearly triangular, it is *emarginate*, as in some species of *Cassia* (fig. 129), and in the common Box (*Buxus sempervirens*). When the lamina terminates very abruptly, as if it had been cut across in a straight line, the apex is *truncate*, as in the leaf of the Tulip-tree (fig. 130); or if under the same circumstances the termination is ragged and irregular, as if it had been bitten off

it is *præmorse*, as in the leaf of *Caryota urens*. When the apex is sharp, so that the two margins form an acute angle with each other (figs. 132 and 139), it is *acute* or *sharp-pointed*, when the point is very long, and tapering (fig. 137), it is *acuminate* or *taper-pointed*, as in the leaf of the White Willow and common

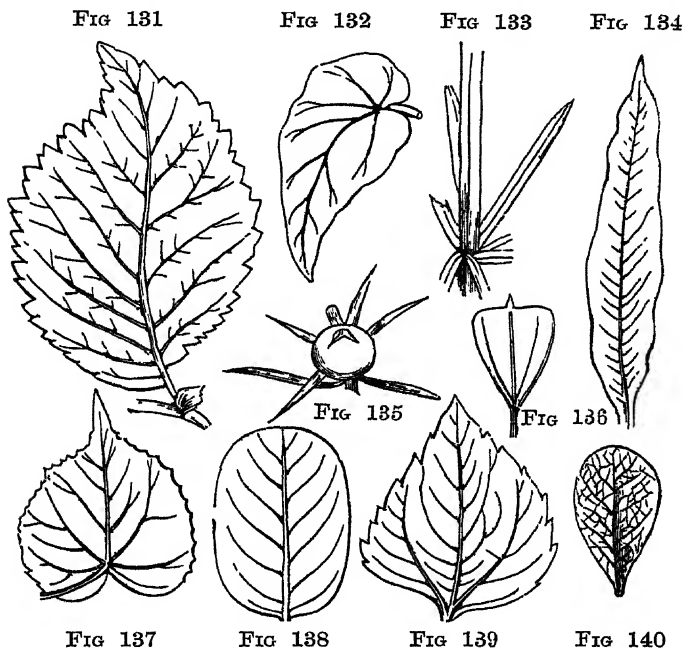


FIG 131 Leaf of Elm, with its margins biserrate, and the lamina unequal at its base — FIG 132 Unequal or oblique leaf of a species of *Begonia* — FIG 133 Linear leaf of Goose grass (*Galium aparine*) — FIG 134 Lanceolate leaf — FIG 135 Acerose or needle-shaped leaves of Juniper (*Juniperus communis*) — FIG 136 A cuneate and mucronate-pointed leaf — FIG 137 Cordate and acuminate leaf, with its margins dentate — FIG 138 Oblong leaf of Bladder Senna (*Coletea arborescens*) — FIG 139 Ovate leaf, with its margins serrate — FIG 140 Obovate leaf

Reed, or when it tapers gradually into a rigid point, it is *cuspidate*, as in many *Rubi*. When the apex, which is then commonly rounded, has a short hard or softened point standing on it, it is *mucronate* (fig. 136), as in the leaf of *Statice mucronata* and *Lathyrus pratensis*.

4. *General Outline or Figure*—By the general outline or

shape of the lamina we mean the superficial aspect or figure which is described by its margins. The development of the wings is usually nearly equal on the two sides of the midrib or petiole, so that the lamina of the leaf is in most instances nearly symmetrical and of some regular figure; in which case the leaf is said to be *equal* (figs. 137-140). When, as occasionally happens, the wing is more developed on one side than on the other, the leaf is termed *unequal* or *oblique* (figs. 129 and 131), this is remarkably the case in the species of *Begonia* (fig 132). Generally speaking, entire leaves with parallel or pinnate venation

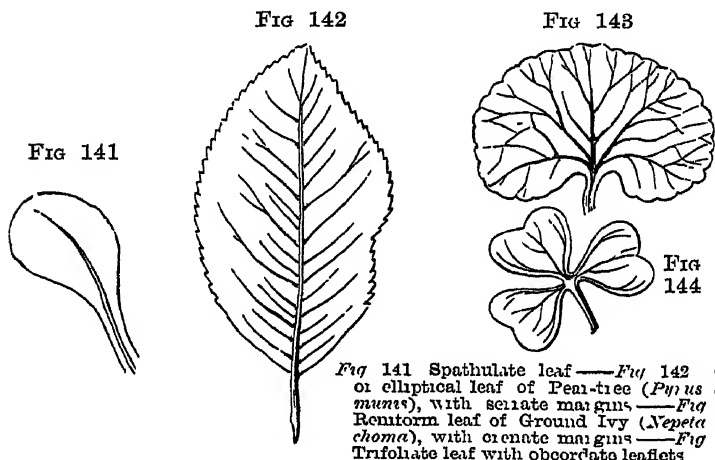


Fig 141 Spatulate leaf — Fig 142 Oval or elliptical leaf of Pear-tree (*Pyrus communis*), with serrate margins — Fig 143 Reniform leaf of Ground Ivy (*Nepeta Glechoma*), with crenate margins — Fig 144 Trifoliate leaf with obcordate leaflets

are longer than broad; while those which are palmately veined are more or less rounded, or broader than long.

When the lamina of a leaf is nearly of the same breadth at the base as near the apex, narrow, and with the two margins parallel (figs 115, a, and 133), the leaf is called *linear*, as in the Marsh Gentian (*Gentiana Pneumonanthe*) and most Grasses, when a linear leaf terminates in a sharp rigid point like a needle, as in the common Juniper (fig 135), and many of our Firs and Larches, it is *acero-se* or *needle-shaped*. When the blade of a leaf is very narrow and tapers from the base to a very fine point, so that it resembles an awl in shape, as in the common Furze (*Ulex europæus*), the leaf is *subulate* or *awl-shaped*. When the blade of a leaf is broadest at the centre, three or more times as long as broad, and tapers perceptibly from the centre to both

base and apex, as in the White Willow (*Salix alba*), the leaf is *lanceolate* (fig. 134), when it is longer than broad, of about the same breadth at its base and apex, and slightly acute at these

FIG. 145



FIG 148



FIG 146

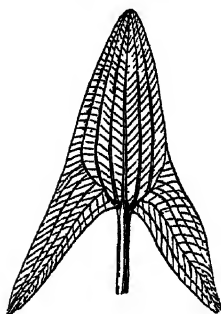


FIG 147

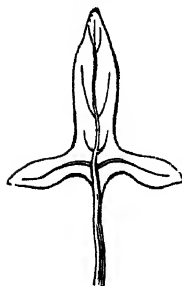


FIG 149

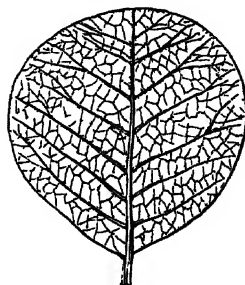


FIG 145 Lunate or crescent-shaped leaf — FIG 146 Sagittate leaf —
FIG 147 Hastate leaf — FIG 148 A portion of the stem of the Woody
Nightshade (*Solanum Dulcamara*), bearing flowering stalk and an amicu-
late leaf — FIG 149 A sub-rotund or rounded leaf, with entire margins

points, it is oval or *elliptical* (fig. 142), as in the Lily of the Valley (*Convallaria majalis*), or if under the same circumstances it is obtuse or rounded at each end (fig. 138), it is *oblong*

If the lamina of a leaf is more or less rounded at the base and broader at this part than at the apex, so that the whole is of the shape of an egg cut lengthwise, the leaf is *ovate* or *egg-shaped* (fig 139), as in the Lilac, or if of the same figure, but with the apex broader than the base (fig 140), it is *obovate* or *inversely egg-shaped*. When the lamina is broad at the apex, and abrupt-pointed, and tapers towards the base (fig 136), as in some Saxifrages, the leaf is *cuneate* or *wedge-shaped*, or if the apex is broad and rounded, and tapers down to the base (fig 141), it is *spathulate*, as in the Daisy. When the lamina is broad and hollowed out at its base into two rounded lobes, and more or less pointed at the apex, the leaf is *cordate* or *heart-shaped* (fig. 137), as in the Black Bryony (*Tamus communis*), or if of the same shape, but with the apex broader than the base, and hollowed out into two rounded lobes, it is *obcordate* or *inversely heart-shaped* (fig 144). When a leaf resembles a cordate one generally in shape, but with its apex rounded, and the whole blade usually shorter and broader (fig 143), it is *reniform* or *kidney-shaped*, as in the Asarabacca (*Asarum europæum*), when a leaf is reniform but with the lobes at the base of the lamina pointed, so that it resembles the form of a crescent (fig 145), it is *lunate* or *crescent-shaped*, as in *Passiflora lunata*. When the blade is broad and hollowed out at its base into two acute lobes, and pointed at the apex, so that it resembles the head of an arrow (fig 146), the leaf is *sagittate* or *arrow-shaped*, as in the Arrowhead (*Sagittaria sagittifolia*), when the lobes of such a leaf are placed horizontally, instead of passing downwards, it is *hastate* or *halbert-shaped* (fig. 147), as in Sheep's Sorrel (*Rumex Acetosella*), or when the lobes are entirely separated from the rest of the blade, as in the upper leaves of the Woody Nightshade (*Solanum Dulcamara*), it is *auriculate* or *hastate-auricled* (fig. 148).

It frequently happens, that a leaf does not distinctly present any of the above-described figures, but exhibits a combination of two of them, in which case we use such terms as *ovate-lanceolate*, *linear-lanceolate*, *cordate-ovate*, *cordate-lanceolate*, *elliptico-lanceolate*, *roundish-ovate*, &c, the application of which will be at once evident.

In many cases we find leaves of different figures on the same plant, under which circumstance the plant is said to be *heterophyllous*. Thus, in the Hairbell (*Campanula rotundifolia*), the radical leaves are *cordate* or *reniform*, and the cauline leaves *linear*; and this difference of outline between the

radical and stem leaves is by no means uncommon. In water plants, again, where some of the leaves are submersed, while others float on the water, or rise above it into the air, as in the Water Crowfoot (*Ranunculus aquatilis*), and Arrowhead (*Sagittaria sagittifolia*), the leaves thus differently situated frequently vary in shape.

5 *Form* —By this term we understand the solid configuration of the lamina. The terms used in defining the various forms are therefore especially applicable to thick or succulent leaves. Such leaves either assume some regular geometrical forms, as *cylindrical*, *pyramidal*, *conical*, *prismatic*, &c., and receive corresponding names, or they approach in form to some well-known objects, and are hence termed *acicular*, *ensiform*, &c. Various other singular forms are also found, some of which will be hereafter alluded to (pages 89–91).

Besides the above described modifications which the blades of leaves present in reference to their *Margins*, *Incision*, *Apex*, *Outline*, and *Form*, they also present numerous other variations as regards their *surface*, *texture*, *colour*, &c.

Compound Leaves.

We have already defined a compound leaf. Its separate leaflets are subject to the same modifications of their margins, incision, apex, outline, form, texture, surface, colour, &c., as the blades of simple leaves, and the same terms are accordingly used in describing them. We have therefore only now to speak of compound leaves as a whole, and the terms which are employed in describing their special modifications. We divide them into two types: the *Pinnate* and the *Palmate* or *Digitate*.

1. *Pinnate Compound Leaves* —When a leaf of this type presents the appearance of several distinct portions or leaflets, it is termed *pinnate* (figs. 93, 94, 150), and the leaflets are then termed *pinnæ*. The leaflets are arranged in an opposite manner along the sides of the rachis or common petiole in pairs, and according to their number the leaf is said to be *unjugate* or *one-paired*, as in several species of *Lathyrus* (fig. 185), *bijugate* or *two-paired*, *trijugate* or *three-paired*; and *multijugate* or *many-paired* (fig. 93). Several kinds of pinnate leaves have also been distinguished by special names. Thus, when a pinnate leaf ends in a solitary leaflet (fig. 93) as in the Rose and Elder, it is *uniparipinnate* or *unequally*

pinnate, or *pinnate with an odd leaflet*, it is *equally* or *abruptly pinnate*, or *paripinnate*, when it ends in a pair of leaflets or *pinnæ* (fig 94), as in some species of *Cassia*, the Mastich plant (*Pistacia Lentiscus*), Logwood (*Hæmatoxylon campechianum*), and *Orobolus tuberosus*, and it is *interruptedly pinnate* (fig 150) when the leaflets are of different sizes, so that small *pinnæ* are regularly or irregularly intermixed with larger ones, as in the Potato (*Solanum tuberosum*) and Silver Weed (*Potentilla anserina*). Or, when the terminal leaflet of a *pinnate* leaf is the largest, and the rest gradually smaller as they approach the

FIG 150



FIG. 152.

FIG 151

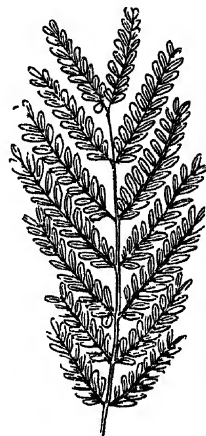


Fig 150 Interruptedly pinnate leaf of the Potato — Fig 151 Lyrate pinnate leaf — Fig 152 Bipinnate leaf of a species of Gleditsia

base (fig 151), it is *lyrate pinnate*, as in the common Turnip. This leaf and the true lyrate form often run into each other, so that it is by no means uncommon to find both varieties of leaf on the same plant, as in the common Turnip and Yellow Rocket.

When the leaflets of a *pinnate* leaf become themselves *pinnate*, or, in other words, when the partial axes which are arranged on the common one exhibit the characters of an ordinary *pinnate* leaf, it is said to be *bipinnate* (fig 152); the leaflets borne by the partial or secondary axes are then commonly termed *pinnules*. When the *pinnules* of a *bipinnate* leaf become themselves *pinnate*, it is *tripinnate* (fig. 97), as in the

Meadow Rue (*Thalictrum minus*), and the common Parsley, it commonly happens, however, that in these leaves the upper leaflets are less divided, as in *fig. 97*. If the division extends

FIG 153



FIG 154



FIG 155

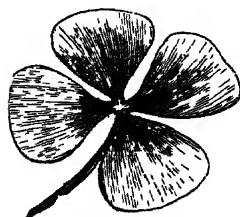


FIG 156



FIG 157.

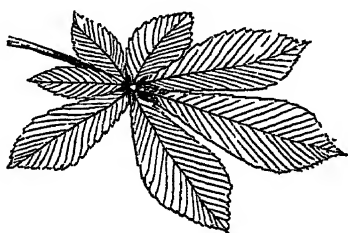


FIG 158

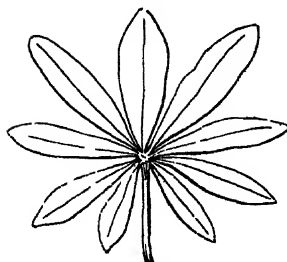


FIG 159

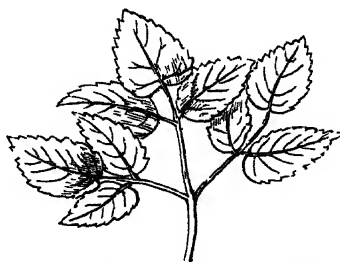


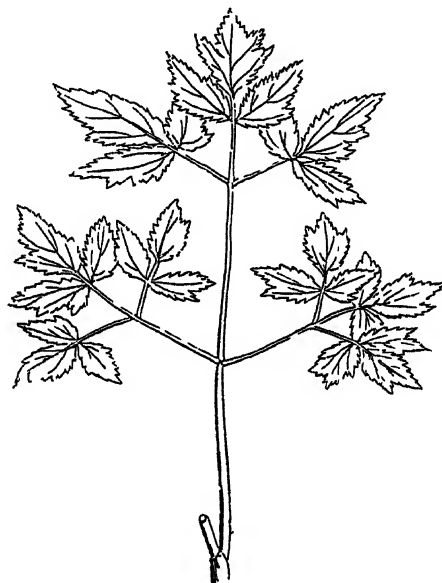
FIG 153 A binate or bitolate leaf — FIG 154 Ternate or tritolate leaf
FIG 155 Quadrifoliate leaf of *Mamea quadrifolia* — FIG 156 Quinate
or quinquefoliate leaf — FIG 157 Septemate leaf of the Horsechestnut
(*Aesculus Hippocastanum*) — FIG 158 Multifoliate leaf of a Lupin —
FIG 159 A biterminate leaf

beyond this, the leaf is *decompound* (*fig. 101*), as in many Umbelliferous plants.

2 *Palmate Compound Leaves*.—Such a leaf is formed when

the axes of a palmately veined leaf bear separate leaflets; and hence these leaves are readily distinguished from those of the pinnate kind by their leaflets coming off from the same point, instead of, as in them, along the sides of a common petiole. We distinguish several kinds of such leaves, thus, a leaf is said to be *binate*, *bifoliate*, or *unjugate*, if it consists of only two leaflets springing from a common point (*fig. 153*), as in *Zygophyllum*, it is *ternate* or *trifoliate* if it consists of three leaflets

FIG 160

Fig 160. Trifoliate leaf of Baneberry (*Actaea*)

arranged in a similar manner (*figs. 144 and 154*), as in the genus *Trifolium*, which receives its name from this circumstance, it is *quadrinate* or *quadrifoliate* if there are four leaflets (*fig. 155*); it is *quinate* or *quinqüefoliate* if there are five (*fig. 156*), as in *Potentilla argentea* and *P. alba*, it is *septenate* or *septemfoliate* if there are seven (*fig. 157*), as in the Horsechestnut and some *Potentillas*, and it is *multifoliate* if there are more than seven (*fig. 158*), as in many species of

Lupin The term *digitate* is generally used when the segments of such a leaf are long and narrow

2 INSERTION AND ARRANGEMENT OF LEAVES.

(1) **INSERTION** —The point by which a leaf is attached to the stem or branch is called its *insertion*. Leaves are inserted on various parts of the stem and branches, and receive different names accordingly. Thus the first leaves which are developed are called *cotyledons* (fig. 16, c, c), or *nursing leaves*. The cotyledons are usually very different in their appearance from the ordinary leaves which succeed them. The first leaves which appear after the cotyledons are termed *primordial*, these,

FIG 161

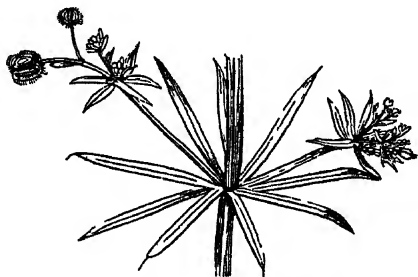


FIG 162

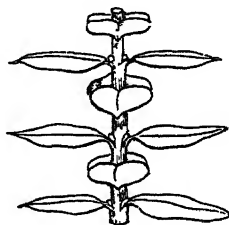


Fig 161 Whorled leaves of a species of *Galium* — Fig 162 Decussate leaves of *Pimelea decussata*

and the cotyledons, generally perish as soon as, or shortly after, the development of the other ordinary leaves. Leaves are called *radical* when they arise at, or below, the surface of the ground, and thus apparently from the root, but really from a shortened stem, or *crowm of the root*, as it is commonly called. Leaves are thus situated in what are termed *acaulescent* plants, such as the Dandelion and Primrose. The leaves which arise from the main stem are called *cauline*, those from the branches *ramal*.

(2) **ARRANGEMENT OF LEAVES ON THE STEM OR PHYLLO-TAXIS** —The term *phyllotaxis* is used in a general sense to indicate the various modes in which leaves are arranged on the stem or branches. There are two main types of such arrangement, depending on whether one leaf or more than one is pro-

duced at a node. In the former case the leaves are *scattered* or *alternate*, in the latter, they are said to be *whorled* (fig 161). The leaves constituting a whorl are usually placed symmetrically round the stem, being at equal distances laterally from each other. When there are only two leaves in each whorl, they are said to be *opposite*. When leaves are opposite, the pairs as they succeed each other usually cross at right angles, in which case they are said to *decussate* (fig. 162), and the arrangement is called *decussation*. When different whorls succeed each other it also frequently happens that a somewhat similar arrangement occurs, thus the leaves of one whorl correspond to the intervals of the whorl below it. There are, however, commonly great irregularities in this respect, and in some cases the number of leaves in the successive whorls vary, by which their arrangement becomes still more complicated. This is the case, for instance, in *Lysimachia vulgaris*.

It sometimes happens that, by the non-development of the internodes of an axillary branch, all the leaves of that branch are brought close together, in which case they form a *tuft* or *fascicle* (fig 163), and the leaves are then said to be *tufted* or *fascicled*. Such an arrangement is well seen in the Barberry and Larch. That fascicled leaves are thus produced is rendered evident by the fact that in the young branches of the Larch the internodes become elongated and the leaves are then separated from each other.

1. *Alternate Leaves*.—Though this arrangement is often termed *scattered*, it does not follow that there is necessarily any irregularity in the position of the leaves. Indeed, it would be better to term the arrangement *spiral*, as each leaf can be ascertained to be placed upon an imaginary spiral line winding symmetrically round the stem, and being at a distance from the next upon the spiral which may be expressed by a fraction of the circumference of the stem. This distance, which is usually constant, is known as the *divergence* of the leaf. This spiral can be traced and the divergence ascertained by counting from any particular leaf to the first one vertically above it. Thus if we take a branch of the Apple or Cherry-tree (fig 164), and commence with any particular leaf which we will mark 1, and then proceed upwards, connecting in our course the base of each succeeding leaf by a line or piece of string, we shall find that we shall pass the leaves marked 2, 3, 4, and 5, but that when we reach the one marked 6, this will correspond vertically with the 1st, and then proceeding further, that the 7th will be

directly over the 2nd, the 8th over the 3rd, the 9th over the 4th, the 10th over the 5th, and the 11th over the 6th and 1st; so that in all cases when a sixth leaf is reached, including the one started from, a straight line may be drawn from below upwards to it. These lines that can be drawn vertically down the stem through the leaf-bases are known as *orthostichies*, and the imaginary spiral line is called the *genetic spiral*. If we refer again to the arrangement of the leaves in the Cherry or Apple, we shall find that before we arrive at the sixth leaf (fig 164), which is over the first, the string or line used to connect the base of the leaves will have passed twice round the circumference of the branch. The point where a leaf is thus found, which is placed in a straight line, or perpendicularly over the first, shows the completion of a *series* or *cycle*, and thus in the

FIG 163

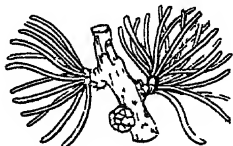


FIG 164

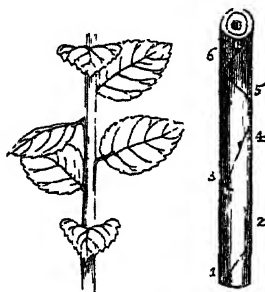


Fig. 163 Fascicled or tufted leaves of the Laurel.—Fig. 164 A portion of a branch of the Cherry-tree with six leaves, the sixth of which is placed vertically over the first. The right-hand figure is the same branch magnified, the leaves having been removed, and numbers placed to indicate the points of their insertion.

Cherry and Apple the cycle consists of five leaves. As the five leaves are equidistant from each other, and as the line which connects them passes twice round the stem, the distance of one leaf from the other will be $\frac{2}{5}$ of its circumference. The fraction $\frac{2}{5}$, therefore, is the *angular divergence*, or size of the arc interposed between the insertion of two successive leaves, or then distance from each other expressed in parts of the circumference of the circle, that is $\frac{2}{5}$ of $360^\circ = 144^\circ$, the numerator indicates the number of turns made in completing the cycle, and the denominator the number of leaves contained in it. The successive leaves as they are produced on the stem, as we have seen, are also arranged in similar cycles. This arrangement in cycles of five is common in Dicotyledons. It is termed the *quincuncial*, *pentastichous*, or *five-ranked arrangement*.

A second variety of arrangement in alternate leaves is that which is called *distichous* or *two-ranked*. Here the second leaf is above and directly opposite to the first (*fig 165*), and the third being in like manner opposite to the second, it is placed vertically over the first, and thus completes the cycle, which here consists of but two leaves, the fourth leaf again is over the second, and the fifth over the third and first, thus completing a second cycle, and so on with the successive leaves. Here one turn completes the spiral, so that the angular divergence is $\frac{1}{2}$ the circumference of a circle, or $\frac{1}{2}$ of $360^\circ = 180^\circ$. This arrangement is the normal one in all Grasses, and many other Monocotyle-

FIG 165



FIG 166

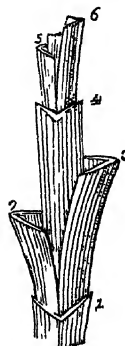


Fig 165 Portion of a branch of the Lime tree, with four leaves arranged in a distichous or two-ranked manner — *Fig 166* Portion of a branch with the base of the leaves of a species of *Carex*, showing the tristichous or three-ranked arrangement. The numbers indicate the successive bases of the leaves.

ons, and the Lime-tree (*fig 165*), and other Dicotyledons, exhibit a similar arrangement.

A third variety of arrangement in alternate leaves is the *tristichous* or *three-ranked* (*fig 166*). Thus, if we start with any leaf, and mark it No. 1, and then pass to 2, 3, and 4, we shall find that we shall make one turn round the stem, and that the fourth leaf is vertically over the first, and thus completes a cycle composed of three leaves. In like manner, the fifth leaf will be over the second, the sixth over the third, and the seventh over the fourth and first, thus completing a second cycle, and so on with the succeeding leaves. Here the angular divergence is $\frac{1}{3}$, or one turn and three leaves, that is, $\frac{1}{3}$ of $360^\circ = 120^\circ$. This

arrangement is by far the more common one among Monocotyledons

A fourth variety of Phyllotaxis in alternate leaves is the *octastichous* or *eight-ranked*. Examples of this variety occur in the Holly and Aconite. In this the ninth leaf is over the first, the tenth over the second, the eleventh over the third, and so on, thus taking eight leaves to complete the cycle, and, as the spiral line here makes three turns round the stem, the angular divergence will be $\frac{3}{8}$ of the circumference, that is, $\frac{3}{8}$ of $360^\circ = 135^\circ$

The above are the more common varieties of Phyllotaxis,

FIG 167

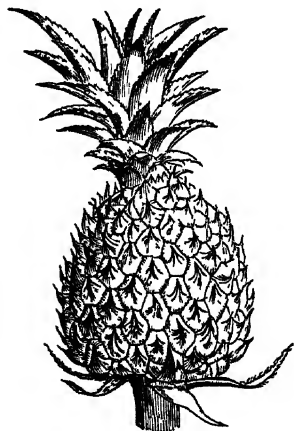


FIG 168



Fig 167 Pineapple fruit (*So. asis*), surmounted by a crown of empty bracts

Fig 168 Cone of the Scotch Fir

but a number of others also frequently occur, as $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{2}{5}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{3}{5}$, &c. Other varieties met with are $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{5}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{2}{5}$, $\frac{3}{7}$, &c., also $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{5}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{2}{5}$, &c., as also others of a rarer occurrence. These become more complicated as the number of leaves, &c., in the spire is increased, but in those cases where the leaves, &c., are so numerous as to be close to each other, as in the Screw-pine, the Pineapple (*fig 167*), and in the fruit of Coniferous plants (*fig 168*), a spiral arrangement is at once evident

By placing the fractions representing the angular divergence in the different varieties of Phyllotaxis side by side in a line,

thus $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{5}{4}, \frac{7}{4}, \frac{11}{4}, \frac{13}{4}, \&c$; $\frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4}, \frac{5}{4}, \frac{7}{4}, \frac{9}{4}, \frac{11}{4}, \&c.$, we see at once that a certain relation exists between them, for the numerator of each fraction is composed of the sum of the numerators, and the denominator of the sum of the denominators of the two preceding fractions, also in the first series, that the numerator of each fraction is the denominator of the next but one preceding. By applying this simple law therefore we may continue the series of fractions representing the angular divergence, &c, thus $\frac{13}{4}, \frac{17}{4}, \frac{21}{4}, \&c.$

It should be mentioned with respect to the laws of Phyllotaxy, that they are frequently interfered with by accidental causes which produce corresponding interruptions of growth, so that it is then difficult, or altogether impossible, to discover the regular condition.

All the above varieties of Phyllotaxis in which the angular divergence is such that the orthostichies are vertical and the leaves completing the cycles are thus directly over those commencing them, are called *rectiserial*, while those in which the divergence is such that the orthostichies themselves are slightly twisted spirally, are termed *curviserial*. The first forms of arrangement are looked upon as the normal ones, the latter will show the impossibility of bringing organic forms and arrangements, in all cases, under exact mathematical laws.

We have thus endeavoured to show that when leaves are alternate, the successive leaves form a spiral round the axis. The spire may either turn from right to left, or from left to right. In the majority of cases, the direction in both the stem and branches is the same, and it is then said to be *homodromous*, but instances also occasionally occur in which the direction is different, when it is called *heterodromous*.

2 *Opposite and Whorled Leaves*.—We have already observed with regard to these modifications of arrangement, that the successive pairs, or whorls, of leaves, as they succeed each other (page 80), are not commonly inserted immediately over the preceding, but that the second pair (*fig* 162), or whorl, is placed over the intervals of the first, the third over those of the second, and so on. Here, therefore, the third pair of leaves will be directly over the first, the fourth over the second, the fifth over the third, and so on. This arrangement occurs in plants of the Labiate and Olive orders, and is called *decussation*, as previously noticed. In some cases the succeeding pairs or whorls are not thus placed directly over the intervals of those below, but a little on one side, so that we shall have to pass to some higher pair or

whorl than the third, before we arrive at one which is placed directly over the first. Such arrangements, therefore, clearly show that the successive pairs and whorls of leaves are arranged in a spiral manner with regard to each other. Opposite leaves may be thus looked upon as produced by two spirals proceeding up the stem simultaneously in two opposite directions, and the whorl as formed of as many spirals as there are component leaves.

The constituent leaves of a whorl are usually of the same age, but not always so. In the *Chaiaceæ* the members of the whorl are developed in a definite sequence. Spurious whorls may arise in certain cases where in the bud one leaf develops from each of many nodes, which at that time are close together. By non-development of some of the internodes, many of these leaves continue in close proximity, and such clusters being separated by growth of a particular internode between them, the originally spiral arrangement is lost and a whorled one apparently takes its place. The members of each spurious whorl are, of course, of different ages.

The alternation or opposition of leaves is generally constant in the same species, and even in some cases throughout entire natural orders. Thus, the Borage order (*Boraginaceæ*) have alternate leaves, the Pink order (*Caryophyllaceæ*), opposite, the Labiate order (*Labiataæ*), opposite and decussate, the Leguminous order (*Leguminosæ*), alternate, the Rose order (*Rosaceæ*), alternate, &c. While the opposition or alternation of leaves may be thus shown to be constant throughout entire natural orders, yet the change from one arrangement to another may be sometimes seen upon the same stem, as in the common Myrtle and Snapdragon. Other opposite-leaved plants also often exhibit an alternate arrangement at the extremities of their young branches when these grow very rapidly. In other cases alternate leaves may become opposite, or whorled, by the non-development of the successive internodes by interruptions of growth or, if the whole of the internodes of a branch become non-developed, the leaves become tufted or fascicled (*fig. 163*), as already noticed. Generally, however, the relative position of leaves is so constant in the same species that it forms one of its characteristic distinctions.

A certain order of arrangement may often be noticed between the leaves of a stem and those of the branches springing from their axils. Thus in Dicotyledons which have opposite leaves, the pair of leaves first produced upon a branch usually decussate with the leaf at its base. In Monocotyledons the first leaf is

placed upon the side of the branch nearest to the stem, subtending thus the leaf from whose axil it arises

3 ARRANGEMENT OF THE LEAVES IN THE BUD.

Having now described the general arrangement of leaves when in a fully formed and expanded state upon the stem or branch, we have in the next place to allude to the different modes in which they are disposed while in a rudimentary and unexpanded condition in the bud. We may consider, 1st, The modes in which each of the leaves considered independently of the others is disposed, and, 2nd, The relation of the several leaves of the same bud taken as a whole to one another. These may be spoken of

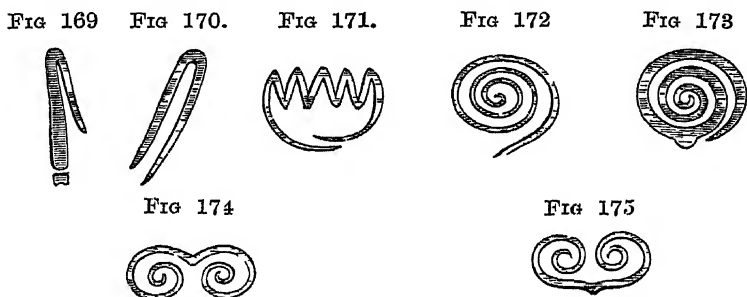


Fig 169 Vertical section of a reclinant leaf — Fig 170 Transverse section of a conduplicate leaf — Fig 171 Transverse section of a pinnate or plicate leaf — Fig 172 Vertical section of a circinate leaf — Fig 173 Transverse section of a convolute leaf — Fig 174 Transverse section of a revolute leaf — Fig 175 Transverse section of an involute leaf

vernation and *prefoliation* respectively. In the *first place* we shall consider the modes in which each of the leaves considered separately is disposed. We arrange these again in two divisions:—1st, Those in which the leaf is simply *bent* or *folded*, and 2nd, Those where it is *rolled*. Of the first modification we have three varieties.—Thus, 1st, the upper half of the leaf may be bent upon the lower, so that the apex approaches the base (fig 169), as in the Tulip-tree, it is then said to be *reclinant* or *inflexed*, 2nd, the right half may be folded upon the left, the ends and midrib or axis of the leaf remaining immovable (fig 170), as in the Oak and Magnolia, when it is called *conduplicate*; or, 3rd, each leaf may be folded up a number of times like a fan (fig. 171), as in the Sycamore, Currant, and Vine, when it

is *plated* or *plicate*. Of the second modification we have four varieties.—1st, the apex may be rolled up on the axis of the leaf towards the base, like a crosier (*fig. 172*), as in the Sundew and Ferns, when it is *circinate*, 2nd, the whole leaf may be rolled up from one margin into a single coil, with the other margin exterior (*fig 173*), as in the Apricot and Banana, in which case it is *convolute*, 3rd, the two margins of the leaf may both be rolled inwards on the upper surface of the leaf, towards the midrib, which remains immovable (*fig. 175*), as in the Violet and Water lily, when it is *involute*, or, 4th, the two margins may be rolled outwards or towards the midrib on the

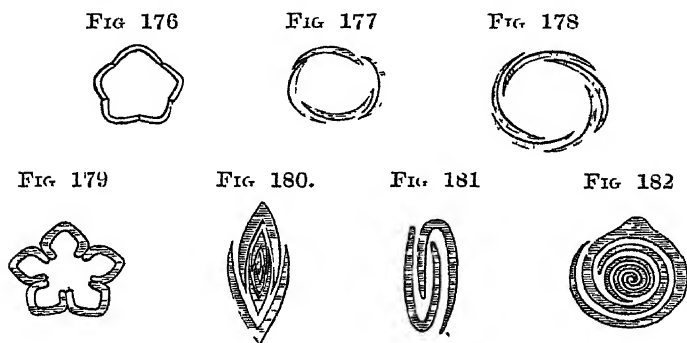


Fig 176 Transverse section of a bud to show the leaves arranged in a valvate manner — *Fig 177* Transverse section of a bud to show imbricate venation — *Fig 178* Transverse section of a bud to show twisted or spiral venation — *Fig 179* Transverse section of a bud to show unduplicate venation — *Fig 180* Transverse section of a bud showing equitant venation — *Fig 181* Transverse section of a bud showing convolute venation — *Fig 182* Transverse section of a bud showing superville venation

lower surface of the leaf (*fig. 174*), as in the Dock and Azalea, in which case it is *revolute*

We pass now to consider, *secondly*, the relation of the several leaves of the same bud, taken as a whole, to one another. Of this we have several varieties which may also be treated of in two divisions —1st, those in which the component leaves are *flat* or *slightly convex*, and 2nd, where they are *bent* or *rolled*. Of the first division we shall describe three varieties —1st, that in which the leaves are placed nearly in a circle or at the same level, and in contact by their margins only, without overlapping each other (*fig 176*), when they are *valvate*; 2nd, that in which the leaves are placed at different levels, and the outer succes-

sively overlap the inner to a greater or less extent by their margins (*fig. 177*), as in the Lilac, and in the outer scales of the Sycamore, when they are said to be *imbricate*, and 3rd, when leaves are placed as in imbricate vernation, and one margin of each leaf overlaps that of another, while the other margin, in its turn, is overlapped by a third (*fig 178*), the vernation is *twisted* or *spiral*. Of the second division, viz. where the component leaves of the bud are *bent* or *rolled*, we shall describe four varieties — 1st, when involute leaves are applied together in a circle without overlapping (*fig 179*), they are said to be *induplicate*; 2nd, if the leaves are conduplicate, and the outer successively embrace and

FIG 183



FIG 184

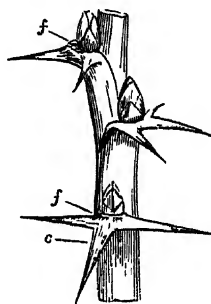


Fig 183 A portion of a branch of the Barberry (*Berberis vulgaris*), bearing spiny leaves. The upper leaf is composed entirely of hardened veins without any parenchyma between them — *Fig 184* A portion of a branch of the Gooseberry (*Ribes Grossularia*) *f* Spiny stipules *c* Spine replacing leaf

sit astride of those next within them, as if on a saddle (*fig. 180*), as in the Privet, and the leaves of the Iris at their base, they are *equitant*, 3rd, if the half of one conduplicate leaf receives in its fold the half of another folded in the same manner (*fig 181*), as in the Sage, the vernation is *half-equitant* or *obvolvate*, and 4th, when a convolute leaf encloses another which is rolled up in a like manner (*fig 182*), as in the Apricot, the vernation is *supervolvate*.

The terms thus used in describing the different kinds of vernation are also applied in like manner to the component parts of the flower-bud, that is, so far as the floral envelopes are concerned, under the collective name of *æstivation* or *præfloration*.

We shall have therefore to refer to some of them again, together with others, not found in the leaf-bud, when speaking of the flower bud.

4 OTHER MODIFICATIONS OF THE LEAF.

Besides the kinds of leaf which we have now examined, there occur others which serve various purposes, and are frequently adaptations to special habits of life, such are *spinous leaves*, *leaf-tendrils*, and *pitchers*. Either the whole leaf or part of it may undergo modifications of this kind. We have again the

FIG 185



FIG 187.

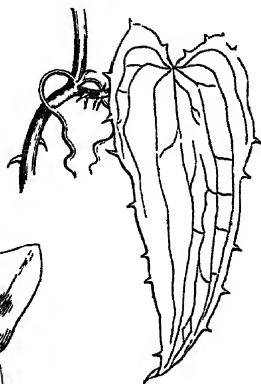


FIG 186

Fig 185 Leaf of a species of *Lathyrus*, showing a winged petiole, with two halt sagittate stipules at its base, and terminated by a tendril — Fig 186 A portion of the stem of *Lathyrus aphaca*, with stipules, s, t, and cirrhose petiole, v — Fig 187 A portion of the stem of *Smilax*, bearing a petiolate leaf, and two tendrils in place of stipules

various forms of scaly or cataphyllary leaves, and the leaves specially connected with reproductive structures, including the sporophylls and other leaves of the flower and inflorescence

Spines of Leaves —Any part of the leaf may exhibit a spiny character owing to the non-development or diminution of parenchyma, and the hardening of the veins. Thus,—1st, in the Holly (fig. 122) and many Thistles (fig. 80), the veins project beyond the blade, and become hard and spiny, while in the Barberry (fig. 183) the blade has little or no parenchyma produced between its veins, which are of a spiny character, so that

the whole lamina becomes spinous. Spines of leaves may be readily distinguished from the spines already described (page 42), which are modified branches, because in the latter case they always arise from the axil of the leaf, instead of from the leaf itself. Spines may be readily distinguished from prickles by their internal structure. 2nd The epipodium may assume a spiny character, as in some species of *Astragalus*, or (fig 184, c) as in the Gooseberry. And, 3rd The stipules may become transformed into spines, as in *Robinia Pseud-acacia* (fig 98).

Tendrils of Leaves—Any part of the leaf may also become cirrhone or transformed into a tendril. Thus,—1st The midrib of the blade of a simple leaf may project beyond the apex, and

FIG 188

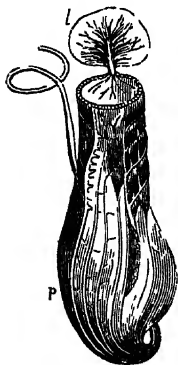


FIG 189

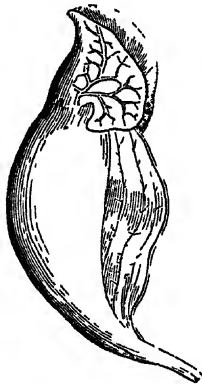


FIG 190



Fig 188 Pitcher of a species of Pitcher Plant (*Nepenthes distillatoria*) *p*
Pitcher closed by the lid, *L* — Fig 189 Pitcher of the Side-saddle Plant
(*Sida-acacia purpurea*) — Fig 190 Pitchers of *Heliamphora*

form a tendril, as in *Gloriosa superba*, or some of the leaflets of a compound leaf may become transformed into branched tendrils (figs. 84 and 185), as in certain species of *Lathyrus*, and many other Leguminosæ. 2nd The petiole may become cirrhone, as in *Lathyrus Aphaca* (fig. 186, v). And, 3rd The stipules may assume the form of tendrils, thus in many species of *Smilax* there are two tendrils, one on each side of the base of the petiole (fig 187), in place of the ordinary stipules.

Ascidia or Pitchers.—These are the most remarkable of all the anomalous forms presented by leaves. They may be seen in the species of *Nepenthes* or Pitcher-plants (fig. 188), in the

species of *Sarracenia* or Side-saddle-plants (*fig* 189), and in many others. In the *Sarracenia* (*fig* 189), the pitcher appears to be originated much as is the peltate leaf, by further basal growth it becomes tubular. In the *Nepenthes* (*fig.* 188), the petiole is winged for a certain distance, then assumes the appearance of a tendril, and ultimately bears a pitcher, *p*; this is closed above by a lid, *l*, called an opeculum, which is united to it by an articulation. The pitcher is formed out of the lamina, and the operculum is the terminal lobe.

Ergitant Leaves—A peculiar form of leaf is seen in *Iris*, *Phormium*, and certain other Monocotyledonous plants. The leaf is long and narrow in comparison with its length, and its flattened surfaces are directed laterally like those of phyllodes. Its construction can be determined by an inspection of its base, where it is seen to be split partly up one edge, the split embracing the next leaf. The blade is, in fact, folded along its centre, and the upper surfaces of the folds are united together along nearly the whole of the lamina. One edge of the blade so corresponds to the conjoined margins of the leaf, the other to its central line, and the two sides to the whole dorsal surface. The upper surface is only exposed at the sheathing base.

Scaly or Cataphyllary Leaves—These are of very simple structure, and may generally be regarded as leaves that have remained rudimentary. They occur as coverings to buds, thin membranous coatings to tunicated bulbs and corms, fleshy leaves coating bulbs, &c. They do not contain chlorophyll, and are consequently never green in colour. In some parasitic and saprophytic plants, such as the Broom-rapes, and certain orchids, these replace the ordinary foliage leaves.

Floral Leaves—These include the various forms which occur in connection with the reproductive organs. They will be discussed later in more detail. They show much peculiarity of form, colour, and arrangement.

CHAPTER II

MORPHOLOGY OF THE REPRODUCTIVE ORGANS

THE life of an individual being but limited in its duration, we find various mechanisms existing to continue the existence of the species, these form the Reproductive Organs. We have seen that new individuals are produced from existing ones by various methods, which may be grouped into three classes, known respectively as the *vegetative*, the *asexual*, and the *sexual*.

Instances have already been given of the origination of special adventitious buds upon various parts of plants which, becoming detached from the parent form, can carry on independent existence. Such are the young plants arising on the stolons or runners of the Strawberry, or on the leaves of *Bryophyllum* all such belong to the first group. We have also found that certain forms of plants produce from time to time special cells which fall away from the parent and are by themselves capable of giving rise to other forms. These asexual cells are known as *spores* or *gonidia*. We have noted, further, that on other forms special cells are produced which unite in pairs to form new cells, from which again the new phase of the plant is developed these are sexual cells or *gametes*. We get thus certain forms of plants producing spores, and known as *sporophytes*, and others producing gametes, and therefore called *gametophytes*. The gametophyte, besides bearing its gametes, may also bear spores indistinguishable in their structure and behaviour from those of the sporophyte. The sporophyte however, never gives rise to gametes.

We may now examine these three classes of mechanism separately.

SECTION I

VEGETATIVE REPRODUCTIVE STRUCTURES.

Vegetative reproduction is the simplest manner of producing a new individual, and can in the lower forms often be hardly

distinguished from ordinary growth. It can be illustrated by a series of examples. In the lowest Fungi and Algae, in which the plant consists only of a single cell, as in Yeast, an outgrowth from the cell appears, which becomes detached and forms a new individual, giving rise to others in turn. Sometimes the process is so rapid that the new cell gives rise to another before being detached, and this may go on till a chain of cells is formed. Each of these is, however, an independent Yeast plant, and the separation is a mere matter of time. This process is known as *budding*. In other cases, as in the Desmids, the cell divides into two, each of which, by subsequent growth, becomes a new individual. This is only slightly different from the first process, and is known as *fission*.

In more highly differentiated plants certain portions of the parent are detached, which develop into the adult forms. These are generally known as *gemmae*, and may be unicellular or multicellular. Instances are found of the former among the Algae, of the latter in higher groups also, particularly the Liverworts and Mosses, where they are developed in special places. In the former group they are found in cup-like receptacles upon the upper surface of the thalloid stem, in the latter their position varies greatly. In the Lichens small portions of the thallus are set free, these are known as *soredia*. They have the same structure as the thallus itself.

In many plants frequently branches become independent by the perishing of the main axis on which they arise. In the case of the runner of the Strawberry a bud is developed on the stem which puts out roots and attaches itself to the ground. Then the stem on which it arises perishes, and the new plant lives for itself. Other cases of similar behaviour are furnished by the production of bulbs or corms in many plants, and in the behaviour of many rhizomes.

Cuttings illustrate the same mode of reproduction. A piece of the stem, with buds and leaves, when separated from the parent and planted in soil, will, under appropriate conditions, put out roots from the cut surface, and thus replace the parts missing and lead an independent life. Buds may arise from wounded leaves or petioles under similar conditions.

In this mode of reproduction the form of the plant from which the new one is derived remains unchanged. Thus sporophyte gives rise to sporophyte, gametophyte to gametophyte, and there is no alternation of generations.

SECTION II.

REPRODUCTIVE ORGANS OF THE SPOROPHYTE

The Spores

The reproduction of the sporophyte is typically effected by specialised cells known as *spores*. These are generally single cells, usually furnished with a tough, sometimes much thickened coat, enclosing, in addition to its living substance or protoplasm, various nutritive materials, such as starch, sugar, oil, &c. The spore-coat in some cases is thin and delicate. Spores are produced in various ways in different plants, but are usually found in special receptacles known as *sporangia*.

In the cases where the spore has no outer wall, it must be regarded as a naked piece of protoplasm. It is then frequently furnished with a number of vibratile threads at one or more points of its surface, by which it can move freely about in water. Such a spore is known as a *zoospore*. These only occur in the lowest forms of plants, the Algae and Fungi.

In the higher forms, the Vascular Cryptogams and the Phanerogams, the sporophyte produces in some plants one kind, in others two kinds, of spore, which in the latter case differ from each other in size and in the form of gametophyte to which they give origin. They are known as *microspores* and *macrospores* or *megaspores* respectively. According to whether one or two kinds of spore are produced, the sporophyte is called *isosporous* or *heterosporous*. Special terms are employed to characterise the microspores and macrospores in the Phanerogams, the former being known as *pollen-grains* and the latter as *embryo-sacs*. These terms were employed before the true nature of these structures was known, it is convenient to use them still, recognising, however, their true morphological nature.

The Sporangia.

A good deal of variety is found in the form of the organ on or in which the spores originate. In unicellular plants the whole cell may become a sporangium, as in Yeast, where its contents divide into four parts, each of which becomes surrounded by a cell-wall, and the four spores become liberated by the disintegration of the original cell-wall. In many Fungi there is no special sporangium, but the spores are abstracted from certain special cells of the surface, and frequently form long chains which eventually separate into the separate spores.

These are more frequently called *gonidia*, though there is no essential difference between a gonidium and a spore.

In higher plants the sporangium is not a single cell, but a differentiated multicellular body.

In the group of the Bryophyta, or Moss-like plants, there are no definite sporangia, but the spores are produced in a special part of the sporophyte, known as the *capsule* or *sporogonium*. This must not be confused with a *sporangium*, as it contains other structures than spores; it is a highly complex body, and forms the greater part of the sporophyte.

In all plants above the Mosses the sporangium is a well differentiated roundish or ovoid structure, consisting of a wall or coat, often furnished with particular cells to secure its opening when ripe. In the interior the spores, which vary in number, usually lie free and present the structure already described.

The position of the sporangia varies also. Usually they arise on leaves, which are then known as *sporophylls*, each of which may bear one, two, four, or many. They may be on the back of the leaf, as in most Ferns, on its edges, as in the case of the macrosporangia of most Phanerogams; or in its axil, as in many Selaginellas. In some cases they arise on the axis or stem, as in the Yew-tree among Gymnosperms, and as in some Angiosperms. The macrosporangia are more frequently borne on the axis than are the microsporangia.

In many cases the sporangia are found in isolated groups, when each group constitutes a *sorus*, as in most Ferns. Sometimes the sporangia in a sorus are not isolated but coherent together, as in Marattia, and in the anthers of the Phanerogams.

When a plant bears both microspores and macrospores, sporangia producing each kind may be present in the same sorus; or a sorus may consist of either micro- or macrosporangia. Generally, though not always, the sorus is covered and protected by an outgrowth of the surface of the plant, known as an *indusium*. The sorus is represented in the Phanerogams more clearly in the arrangement of the microsporangia of some Cycads which are collected into groups on the surface of a modified leaf.

In other cases the sporangia are single and not grouped. Such sporangia then represent sori, and each may be covered by an indusium, as in the macrosporangium of *Azolla*. In the macrosporangium of the Phanerogams, generally called the *ovule*, the indusium is represented by the coats or integuments which invest it closely.

When the spores are mature they are liberated by the burst-

ing of the sporangium wall, and they produce new gametophytes after this liberation, the latter thus being free from the sporophyte. As already noted, however, an exception to this is found in the case of the macrospore of the Phanerogams, which germinates *in situ* in the sporangium (ovule)

The macrosporangium of the Phanerogams shows considerable diversity of form in different plants. It will be convenient to reserve a discussion of its principal features till the end of the present chapter, where it will be treated of under its popular name *ovule*.

The Sporophore or Inflorescence

In many cases, particularly in the lower forms, there is no special part of the structure on which the sporangia arise. Even in the Algæ and Fungi, however, very soon such differentiation can be seen, and they are borne upon definite outgrowths from the main body. When such outgrowths occur they may be described as *sporophores*. In the higher plants the sporophore is usually a very well-marked part of the sporophyte.

In most cases the sporophyte shows differentiation into stem and leaf, and the sporophore is then a recognisable branch system, constituting what has been called the *inflorescence*. This term is used especially in connection with the sporophores of the Flowering Plants, owing to the fact that these plants bear their spores in special structures known as *flowers*. The term *flower* should not, however, be restricted to these plants, but may be applied to any shoot especially adapted to spore-production. A flower consists of an axis, generally bearing leaves, which may be of two kinds the *sporophylls*, or those which carry the sporangia, and certain protective leaves which bear the name of the *perianth*. Sometimes the axis bears no leaves, and the sporangia are developed upon the axis itself, as in the Yew-tree. Usually in Phanerogams the flower includes two kinds of sporophylls those bearing microsporangia, which are named *stamens*, and those carrying macrosporangia, which are known as *carpels*. Many flowers, however, only contain one of the two, and are then known as *unisexual*, or *staminate* and *pistillate* respectively.

The sporophyll may present many forms in most Ferns it can only be distinguished from an ordinary foliage leaf by the presence of the sporangia on its under surface, in the Equisetums, or Horsetails, it is a peltate scale, many springing together from the apex of the shoot, each bearing many sporangia between

the scale and the axis, in most Gymnosperms the form varies from a similar structure to that of *Equisetum*, to that of a broad-based, scaly leaf with the sporangium either on its dorsal surface (male flower of *Pinus*) or in its axil (female flower of the same plant). In the Angiosperms the stamen is a club-shaped body with a swollen head, the carpel is more leaf-like, appearing in its most typical form much like a leaf folded upon its midrib, and having its margins united in front, as in *Ranunculus*. The closed chamber so formed is known as the *ovary*. Sometimes several carpels are fused together by their

FIG. 191



Fig. 191 Flowering stalk of the White Dead-nettle (*Lamium album*), with leaty bracts and verticillasters in their axils

edges, forming a chamber which may or may not be septated by partitions. A somewhat similar chamber is found in certain Ferns (*Marsilea*).

In most cases above the Ferns the sporophore forms a distinct branch system, easily distinguishable from the vegetative one. In consequence of its ultimate shoots taking the form of flowers, it is known as the *inflorescence*. It shows a very great variety of form, depending on the mode of branching and the relative development of its several parts. These varieties must be treated of in some detail.

As in the case of the vegetative branch system, we have to discuss the axis and its ramifications, and the leaves which are borne upon it. The latter are all more or less specialised, but fall into two categories, the leaves of the flower or ultimate branches, and those of the axis apart from the flower, which are included under the general term *bract*, or *hypophyll*. It will be convenient to examine the latter first.

1 THE BRACT

In strict language the term *bract* should be only applied to the leaf from the axil of which a solitary flower or a floral axis arises, while all other leafy structures which are found upon that axis between the bract and the flower properly so called, should be termed *bractlets* or *bracteoles*. These two kinds of bracts are, however, but rarely distinguished in practice, the term bract being generally alone used for either variety, and in this sense we shall hereafter, as a general rule, apply it.

Bracts vary much in appearance,

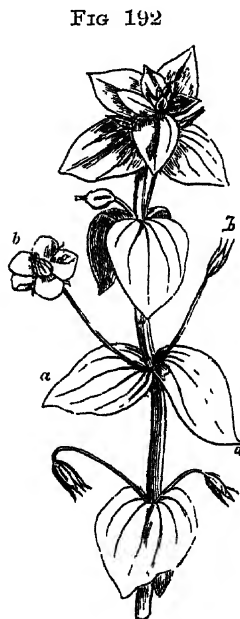


FIG. 193



FIG. 194

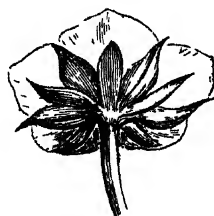


Fig. 192 Flowering stalk of the Pimpernel (*Anagallis arvensis*). *b, b* Solitary flowers arising from the axil of the leafy bracts, *a, a* — Fig. 193 Calyx of the Marsh-mallow (*Althaea officinalis*), surrounded by an epicalyx or involucre — Fig. 194 Flower of the Strawberry (*Fragaria vesca*), surrounded by an epicalyx or involucre

some of them being large, of a green colour, and in other respects resembling the ordinary foliage leaves of the plant upon which they are placed, as in the White Dead-nettle (fig. 191), and in the Pimpernel (fig. 192, *a, a*), in which case

they are called *leafy bracts*. Such bracts can only be distinguished from the true leaves by their position with regard to the flower-stalk or flower. In most cases, however, bracts, although very commonly of a greenish colour, are smaller than the foliage leaves, and in many plants they may be known from the ordinary leaves not only by their position, but also by differences of colour, outline texture, and other peculiarities. Thus the bracts forming the cupule of the Oak (*fig 198*) are hard and woody, in the Hop (*fig 219*) they are membranous; in certain plants of the Aracæ and Euphorbiacæ coloured in the flower-heads of the Compositæ scaly, and other modifications also occur.

FIG 195

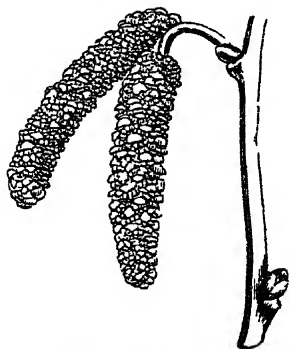


FIG 196

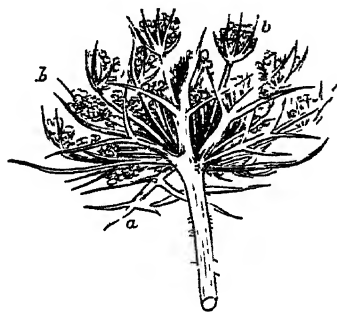


Fig 195 Staminate or male catkin of the Hazel (*Cornus avellana*), showing a number of scaly bracts between the flowers.—*Fig 196* Compound umbel of the Carrot (*Daucus Carota*) *a* General involucre *b, b* Partial involucre or involucels

Sometimes when the bracts are situated in a whorl immediately below the calyx, it is difficult to determine whether they should be considered as a part of the calyx or as true bracts, thus, in most flowers of the Mallow order (*fig 193*), we have a circle of leafy organs placed just below the calyx, to which the term *epicalyx* has been given.

Almost all inflorescences are furnished with bracts of some kind or other, it frequently happens, however, that some of the bracts do not develop axillary flower-buds, just in the same manner as it occasionally happens that the leaves do not produce leaf-buds in their axils. In some cases the non-development of flower-buds in the axil of bracts appears to arise simply from accidental causes; but in others it occurs as a regular law, thus,

in the Purple Clay (*Salvia Hominum*), and the common Pineapple (*fig* 167), there are a number of bracts without flower-buds placed at the apex of the inflorescence. Such bracts are called *empty*. When bracts are absent altogether, as is usually the case in the plants of the natural order Cruciferae, and those of the Boraginaceae, such plants are termed *ebracteate*, when bracts are present the inflorescence is said to be *bracteate*.

Arrangement and Duration of Bracts—Bracts follow the same laws of arrangement as true leaves, being opposite, alternate, or whorled, in different plants. The bracts of the Pineapple fruit (*fig* 167), and those of the Fir cones (*figs* 168 and 218), show in a marked manner a spiral arrangement.

Bracts vary in their duration: thus, when they fall immediately, or soon after the flower-bud expands, they are said to be *deciduous*, or when they remain long united to the floral axis, they are *persistent*. In some plants they persist and constitute a part even of the fruit: in the Hazel-nut and Filbert they form the *cupule* (*fig* 199), in the Acorn they constitute the *cup* (*fig* 198); and in the Hop (*fig* 219), in the Fir-cones (*figs* 168 and 218), and Pineapple (*fig* 167), they persist as membranous, woody, fleshy, or scaly appendages.

Varieties of Bracts—Bracts have received special names according to their arrangement and other characters. Thus the bracts of that kind of inflorescence called an *amentum* or *catkin* (see page 108), as seen in the Willow (*fig* 212), Oak, Hazel (*fig* 195), Birch, and other plants, are usually of a scaly nature, and are termed *squamæ* or *scales*, or the bracts are described as *squamous* or *scaly*. The bracts of the pistillate flowers of the Hop (*fig* 219) are of like character.

When a circle or whorl of bracts is placed around one flower, as in the Marsh Mallow (*fig* 193) and Strawberry (*fig* 194), or around a number of flowers, as in the Carrot (*fig* 196) and most other Umbelliferous plants, they form what is termed an *involucre*. In some Umbelliferous plants, as for instance the Carrot (*fig* 196), there are two involucre, one at the base of the primary divisions of the floral axis or general umbel, *a*, and another at the base of each of the partial umbels or umbellules, *b*, *b*, the former is then called the *general involucre*, and each of the latter an *involucel* or *partial involucre* (see page 115). In plants of the natural order Compositæ, such as the Marigold (*fig* 197), Artichoke, Chamomile, and Daisy, and of some of the allied orders, a somewhat similar arrangement of bracts takes place, and the name of *involucre* is also applied in these

cases In the involucries of the Compositæ there are frequently two or three rows of bracts thus overlapping one another; the constituent bracts of these latter involucries have been termed *phyllaries*. Sometimes the bracts of an involucrie grow together at their bases, and form ultimately a sort of cup-shaped body surrounding the fruit, as the cup of the Acorn (*fig* 198), and the husk of the Filbert or Hazel-nut (*fig* 199), they then form what is called a *cupule*

When a bract is of large size and sheathing, and surrounds one, or a number of flowers, so as to completely enclose them when in a young state, as in the Iris, Narcissus, Snowflake (*fig*. 200), the com-

FIG 197



Fig 197 Capitulum of Marigold (*Tagetes*), showing the flowers enclosed in an involucre

FIG 198

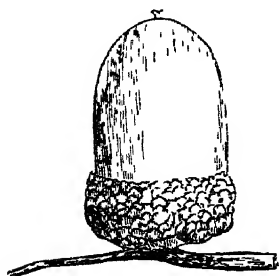


FIG 199



Fig 198 Fruit of the Oak (*Quercus Robur*), surrounded by a cupule —
Fig 199 Fruit of the Hazel (*Corylus Avellana*), with a cupule at its base

mon Arum or Cuckoo-pint (*fig* 201), and Palms (*fig*, 215), it is called a *spathe*. The spathe is generally found surrounding the

kind of inflorescence called a *spadix* (page 108), as in the Arum (*fig. 201*), and Palm (*fig. 215*), it is also very common in other Monocotyledons. The spathe may be either green like an ordinary leaf, as in the Cuckoo-pint, or coloured, as in *Richardia athiopica*. In some Palms these spathes are of great length,

FIG 200

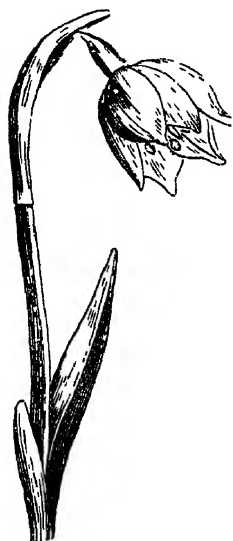


FIG 201



FIG 202

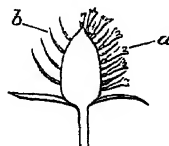


FIG 203

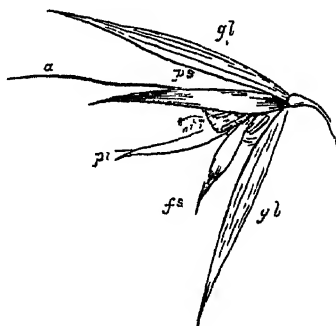


Fig 200 Flower of the Spring Snowflake (*Leucojum vernum*), arising from the axil of a spathaceous bract or spathe—*Fig 201* Spadix of Cuckoo-pint (*Arum maculatum*) enclosed in a spathe, a portion of which has been removed to show the flowers within—*Fig 202* Receptacle of the Chamomile (*Anthemis nobilis*), bearing tubular flowers (florets), *a*, and bracts, *b*, the latter are sometimes termed paleae—*Fig 203* Locust or spikelike of the Oat (*Avena sativa*) *gl, gl* Glumes *ps, ps* Paleae or pales *a* Awn arising from the dorsum of the outer pale, *ps fs* An abortive flower

sometimes even as much as twenty feet, and as many as 200,000 flowers have been counted in them. Sometimes the spadix of a Palm branches (*fig 215*), and then we frequently find smaller spathes surrounding its divisions, which have been named *spathellæ*. The term spathe is generally restricted to the large enveloping bract of the spadix, and other bracts of a like cha-

acter, which enclose only one or at most a few flowers, as frequently found in Monocotyledons, are called *spathaceous bracts*.

Besides the bracts which surround the head of flowers of the Compositæ and form an involucre, it frequently happens that the individual flowers or florets (*fig 202, a*), are also provided with little bracts, *b*, which are then generally of a membranous nature, and colourless, as in the Chamomile. These have received the name of *palææ*, or—to distinguish them from certain floral leaves found in Grasses which are known by the same name—they may be termed *palææ of the receptacle*.

The only other bracts which have received special names are those found in plants of the Grass and Sedge orders. Thus the partial inflorescence of a Grass, which is termed a *locust* or *spikelet* (page 109), has at its base one or two bracts, which are called *glumes* (*fig 203, gl, gl*); while in the Cyperacæ each flower arises from the axil of one or two similar bracts.

2 THE AXIS

The various kinds of branching that have already been examined have been seen to be three—the *dichotomous*, the *monopodial* or *racemose*, and the *cymose*, usually *sympodial*. In the inflorescence we find the first of these doubtfully or not at all represented, we have, therefore, only to deal with the last two. These are sometimes called *Indefinite* or *Indeterminate* and *Definite* or *Determinate* respectively. In the former, the primary floral axis is never terminated by a flower, hence it has the power of either growing in an upward direction, in the same manner as a stem or branch has the power of elongating, and thus adding to its length, or of dilating more or less horizontally. There is consequently no necessary limit to the growth of such an axis, and hence the name of Indeterminate or Indefinite which is applied to it. Such an axis as it continues to grow upwards develops acropetally flower-buds, from which flowers are produced, and these, like the buds of a stem or branch, are commonly situated in the axils of leaves which are here called bracts, as we have seen. All the flowers therefore of an Indefinite Inflorescence must be necessarily *lateral*, this inflorescence is also termed *monopodial*. The general characters of Indefinite, Indeterminate, or Monopodial Inflorescences depend therefore upon the indefinite growth of the primary axis, while the ultimate axes which are developed

from it, are terminated by flower-buds. In Definite or Determinate Inflorescences, on the contrary, the primary axis is terminated at an early period by the production of a flower-bud, such an axis has therefore a limit at once put to its growth in an upward direction, and hence the names of *Definite*, *Determinate*, or *Terminal*, applied to it.

Each of these primary divisions presents us with several modifications, and a third class is not uncommonly met with,

FIG 204

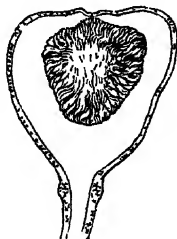


FIG 205

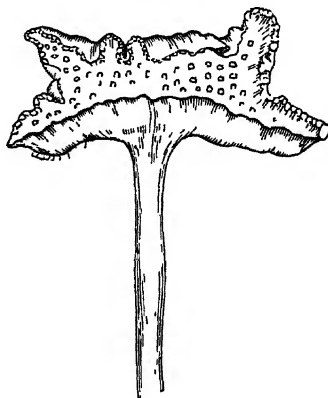


FIG 206



Fig 204 Hypanthodium of the Fig (*Ficus carica*), showing pear-shaped fleshy receptacle bearing flowers on its inner surface — Fig 205 Cœnanthium of a species of *Dorstenia* — Fig 206 Female plant of *Vallisneria spiralis*, with its flowers arranged on spiral peduncles

which, as it includes both modes of branching, is commonly spoken of as *mixed* inflorescence.

Before discussing the different forms of these, there are certain peculiarities and varieties of the axis itself which we must consider.

The term *peduncle* is applied to the stalk of a solitary flower, whether axillary (fig 192, *b*, *b'*), or terminal (fig 200), or to a floral axis which bears a number of sessile flowers (figs 210 and 211), or if the floral axis branches and each branch bears a flower (figs 220 and 221), the main axis is still called a *peduncle*,

and the stalk of each flower a *pedicel*, or if the axis be still further subdivided, the general name of peduncle (*fig. 222*) is applied to the whole, with the exception of the stalks immediately supporting the flowers, which are in all cases called pedicels. When the floral axis is thus branched, it is better to speak of the main axis as the *primary axis* (*fig. 222, a'*), its divisions as the *secondary axes* *a''*, and their divisions as the *tertiary axes* *a'''*, &c.

Kinds of Peduncle—Under certain circumstances peduncles and pedicels have received special names. Thus, when a peduncle is elongated, and gives off from its sides sessile flowers (*figs. 210 and 211*), or branches bearing flowers (*figs. 220-222*), it is called the *rachis*, but if, instead of being elongated, it becomes more or less dilated, and usually bears numerous flowers, it is termed the *receptacle*. The receptacle varies very much in form, thus, it is flattened in the Cotton Thistle (*fig. 225*), conical in the Chamomile (*fig. 202*), concave and fleshy in the Dorstenia (*fig. 205*), pear-shaped and hollowed out in the Fig (*fig. 204*), or it assumes a variety of other intermediate forms. The peculiar receptacle of the Dorstenia is sometimes termed a *crenanthium*, and that of the Fig a *hypanthodium*, or both kinds are sometimes characterised by the latter name.

It should be observed that the term receptacle is also applied to the extremity of the peduncle or pedicel upon which the parts of the flower are placed, whether enlarged or not. This is, however, better called the *thalamus*.

When plants which have no aerial stem bear flowers, the peduncle necessarily arises at, or under, the ground, in which case it is called a *scape* or *radical peduncle* (*fig. 200*) as in the Spring Snowflake, Tulip, Hyacinth, Primrose, and Cowslip. The scape may either bear one flower as in the Tulip, or several flowers as in the Hyacinth.

Forms of Peduncle—In form the peduncle is generally more or less cylindrical, but besides the departure from this ordinary appearance as exhibited by the receptacle just described, and its modifications, it frequently assumes other forms. Thus, it may become more or less compressed, or grooved in various ways, or excessively enlarged during the ripening of the fruit, as in the Cashew-nut, or it may assume a spiral character, as in the *Tallisneria* (*fig. 206*), or other modifications may occur.

Sometimes the peduncle, or several peduncles united, assume an irregular flattened appearance, somewhat resembling the fasciated branch already described (page 34), and bear nume-

rous flowers in a sort of crest at their extremities, as in the Cockscomb, and in the Cauliflower, where the united fleshy branches of the peduncle form a rounded mass bearing on its upper part abortive flowers.

Insertion —In speaking of the branches of a stem, we found that in some cases, instead of arising in the axil of leaves, they became *extra-axillary* in consequence of adhesions of various kinds taking place between them and the stem and other parts. In like manner the peduncle may become *extra-axillary* by contracting adhesions. Thus, in the Lime-tree (*fig 207*), the

FIG 207

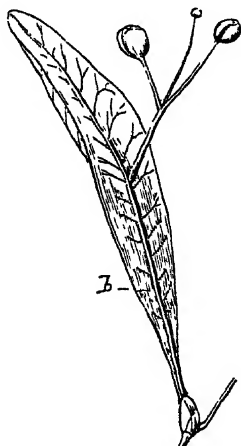


FIG 208



Fig 207 Peduncle of the Lime-tree (*Tilia europaea*) attached to the bract, *b* — *Fig 208* Branch of Woody Nightshade (*Solanum Dulcamara*), with extra-axillary peduncle, and auriculate leaf

peduncle adheres to the midrib of the bract, *b*, for some distance, and then becomes free, while in many Solanaceæ, as in the Woody Nightshade (*fig 208*), the peduncle also becomes extra-axillary by forming adhesions to the stem or branch in various ways.

We may now proceed to describe the chief forms of inflorescence belonging to the three types already mentioned.

Indefinite or Racemose Inflorescence

The simplest kind of inflorescence in this class is that presented by such plants as the Pimpernel (*fig. 192*), in which

solitary flowers, *b, b*, are developed in the axils of what are commonly regarded as the ordinary foliage leaves of the plant, *a, a*, although properly leafy bracts, the primary axis continuing to elongate in an upward direction and bearing other leaves and flowers, the flowers are then said to be *solitary* and *axillary*. When such flowers are arranged in whorls round the stem, as in the common Mare's Tail, each flower being axillary to a leafy bract (*fig* 209), they are said to be *whorled*.

When a number of flowers instead of a single one are developed upon an elongated, shortened, or dilated peduncle, a number of kinds of inflorescence arise. All these depend upon the extent to which the floral axis branches, the mode in which the branching takes place, the comparative lengths of the

FIG 209

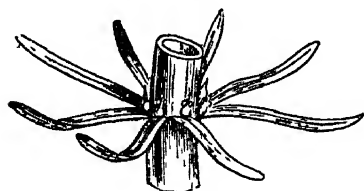


FIG 209 Whorled leafy bracts and solitary axillary flowers of Mare's Tail (*Hippuris vulgaris*). — FIG 210 Spike of a species of Rib grass (*Plantago*). — FIG 211 Spike of Vervain (*Verbena*).

FIG 210

FIG 211



flower-stalks, and other subordinate circumstances. It will be convenient to describe these various modifications under two heads—1st, those kinds of Indefinite Inflorescence with an Elongated Primary Axis, and 2nd, those with a Shortened or Dilated Primary Axis.

In all kinds of indefinite inflorescence it will be found that the flower buds always open in succession from the base to the apex if the axis is elongated (*figs.* 211 and 220), hence these inflorescences have been also called *acropetal* or *ascending*, or from the circumference towards the centre if the axis is shortened or dilated (*fig.* 226), therefore such forms are also called

centripetal This acropetal or centripetal order of expansion necessarily arises from the mode of development of such kinds of inflorescence, thus, the flower-buds situated at the base of an elongated axis are those that are first formed and consequently the oldest, for as the axis elongates upwards it is continually producing other flower-buds, the age of which continues to decrease as we approach the growing point or apex, and as flower-buds are necessarily most developed in the order of their age, it follows that those at the base will open first, and that the order of expansion will proceed gradually upwards towards the apex, or *acropetally*. In the same way the flower-buds situated at the circumference of a shortened or dilated axis are first formed, and those nearest the centre or growing point last, and therefore their expansion will proceed from the circumference to the centre, or *centripetally*.

A *Kinds of Indefinite or Indeterminate Inflorescence with an Elongated Primary Axis*—These are as follows —

a *The Spike*—This is a kind of inflorescence in which the peduncle is elongated and bears sessile flowers, or flowers in which the pedicels are very short, so as not to be clearly distinguishable. Examples of it may be seen in the Rib-grass (*fig* 210), and Vervain (*fig* 211). In this kind of inflorescence it will be observed that the flowers at the lower part of the spike have passed into fruit (*fig* 211), while those near the middle are in full flower, and those at the top are still undeveloped. Such an inflorescence exhibits therefore, in a marked degree, the acropetal order of expansion.

There are five other kinds of indefinite inflorescence which are simply modifications of the spike. These are the Amentum or Catkin, the Spadix, the Locusta, the Cone, and the Strobile.

b *The Amentum or Catkin*—This is a kind of spike which usually bears unisexual flowers—that is, only staminate (*fig* 212), or only pistillate (*fig.* 213) ones. The axis or rachis is usually of a very weak character, so that the catkin is pendulous. The flowers of an amentum are also usually separated from one another by scaly bracts, and the whole inflorescence (at least as regards the staminate catkins) commonly falls off in one piece, soon after the process of flowering. The bracts have sometimes one, or at other times several flowers in their axils. All plants with this kind of inflorescence are called *amentaceous* or *amentiferous*. Our trees afford numerous examples, as the Oak, Willow, Birch, and Poplar.

c. *The Spadix* is a spike with a succulent axis, in which

the individual flowers have no special bracts, but the whole inflorescence is enclosed in that variety of bract which is called a spathe. This is well seen in the Cuckoo pint (*fig. 201*). Sometimes the spadix branches as in Palms (*fig. 215*), in which case it is called *compound* or *branching*. The term spadix is also usually applied to a succulent spike, whether enveloped in a spathe or not, as in the Sweet Flag (*Acorus Calamus*).

d *The Locusta or Spikelet*—This name is given to the partial inflorescence of Grasses (*fig. 203*), and of plants of the Sedge Order. In Grasses it is a spike with a few flowers, and these destitute of a true calyx and corolla, their place being

FIG 212



FIG 213

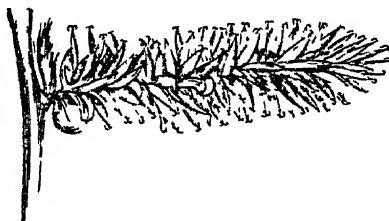


FIG 214

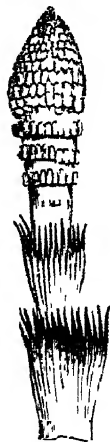


Fig. 212 Staminate amentum or catkin of a species of Willow (*Salix*)—*Fig. 213* Pistillate or carpellary amentum of a species of Willow, with bracts between the carpels—*Fig. 214* Cone of Horsetail (*Equisetum*)

occupied by *paleæ* or *pales* (*fig. 203, ps, pr*), and the whole inflorescence surrounded at the base by one or two empty bracts (*glumes*), *gl, gl*. These spikelets may be either arranged sessile on the elongated peduncle or rachis (*fig. 216*), as in Wheat, or they may be placed on a more or less branched axis, as in the Oat (*fig. 217*). The spikelets of plants of the Sedge Order present certain peculiarities, but they are essentially of the same nature as those of Grasses.

e *The Cone*—This is a kind of spike, found in plants of the Coniferæ, as the Larch, Pine, and Fir (*figs. 168 and 218*), in many of the Cycads, and among Cryptogams in the Horsetails (*fig. 214*) and the Club mosses. It is composed of a collection of scales which bear sporangia. In the Horsetails these scales

are peltate and bear several sporangia on their under surfaces. They are attached to the stalk at a right angle.

In the Cycads the cone has a similar structure.

In the Conifers each scale bears two ovules (macrosporangia) in its axil.

The so-called male cone of many of the Coniferae is not an

FIG 215



FIG 216



FIG 217

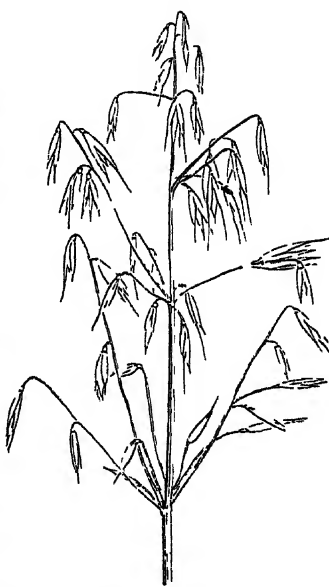


Fig 215 Branched spadix of a Palm (*Chamaerops*), enveloped in a spathe
 Fig 216 Inflorescence of Wheat (*Triticum vulgare*), consisting of numerous sessile spikelets arranged on an elongated peduncle (rachis) —
 Fig 217 Branched or panicle arrangement of the spikelets of the Oat (*Avena sativa*)

inflorescence but a single flower. It consists of a number of sporophylls arranged spirally on an axis, each bearing two microsporangia or pollen-sacs on its under surface.

f. *The Strobile*.—This is a kind of spike formed of persistent membranous bracts or scales, each of which bears at its base a pistillate flower. It is seen in the Hop (fig 219).

All the kinds of indefinite inflorescence at present described

owe their essential characters to the flowers being *sessile* upon an elongated axis. We now pass to describe others, in which the flowers are not sessile. The simplest of these is the Raceme.

g The Raceme—This name is applied to that form of inflorescence in which the elongated peduncle or rachis bears flowers placed on pedicels of nearly equal length (*fig 220*). It only differs from the spike in the flowers being distinctly stalked instead of sessile or nearly so. Examples occur in the Currant, Mignonette, Hyacinth, Laburnum, Barberry, and Fumitory.

FIG 218



FIG 220



FIG 219

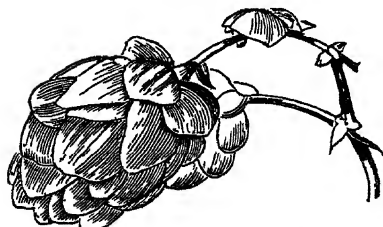


Fig 218 Cone of Hemlock Spruce (*Pinus canadensis*) — Fig 219 Strobile of the Hop (*Humulus Lupulus*) — Fig 220 Raceme of a species of Cherry (*Prunus Padus*)

h The Corymb—When the pedicels, instead of being of nearly equal lengths on the rachis, as in the raceme, are of different lengths (*fig 221*), viz those, $a'' a''$, at the base of the primary axis, a' , longer than those towards and at the apex, so that the whole form a level, or nearly level top, the inflorescence is termed a *corymb*. Examples may be seen in some species of *Prunus* (*fig. 221*). When the stalks or secondary axes of a corymb (*fig. 222, a''*), instead of bearing flowers immediately, divide and form tertiary, $a''' a'''$, or other axes, upon which the flowers are then placed, it is termed *compound* or *branching*, as

in some species of *Pyrus*. This may also be called a *panicked corymb* (see Panicle), to distinguish it from the former or *simple corymb*, which is then termed a *racemose corymb*. It sometimes happens that when the flowers are first developed they form a corymb, but the primary axis elongates later and a raceme is produced; this may be seen in many Cruciferous plants.

In several species of *Juncus* and *Lucula*, the pedicels of the lower flowers are so long that they are elevated above the upper ones, in which case the inflorescence is sometimes distinguished by the term *anthela*.

FIG. 221



FIG. 222



Fig. 221 Simple corymb of a species of *Prunus* (*Cerasus*). *a'* Primary axis, bearing bracts, *b, b'* from the axis of which pedicels, *a'', a'''*, arise.
Fig. 222 Compound or branching corymb of the Wild Service tree (*Lyrus torminalis*). *a'* Primary axis. *a'', a'''* Secondary axes. *a''', a'''* Tertiary axes. *b, b, b* Bracts.

1 *The Panicle*—This is a compound raceme, that is to say, a raceme in which the secondary axes, instead of producing flowers directly, branch, and form tertiary axes, &c, the ultimate subdivisions of which bear the flowers (fig 223). For an example we may take the *Yucca gloriosa*. When the panicle is much branched and the flowers placed on short pedicels, so that the whole inflorescence forms a compact cluster of a somewhat pyramidal form, as in the Lilac and Vine, it is sometimes termed a *thyrsus* or *thyrsce* (fig 224). We also find cases of the compound spike, as in the Wheat, and of panicles whose

ultimate branches are spikes, as in the Oat. These only differ from the panicle in the partial or total absence of the pedicels.

FIG. 223



FIG. 223 Panicle

FIG. 224



FIG. 225

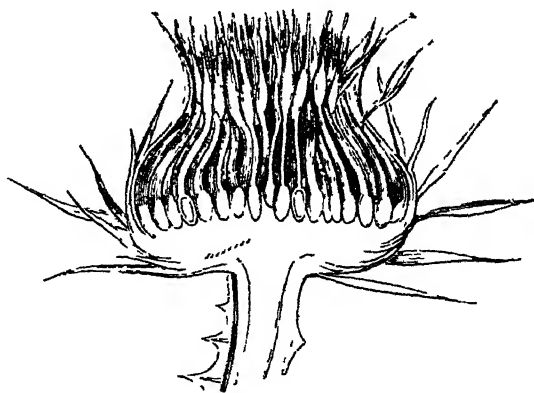


FIG. 224 Thyrsus of Vine (*Vitis vinifera*) — FIG. 225 Capitulum of Cotton Thistle (*Onopordum acanthum*)

B. Kinds of Indefinite Inflorescence with a Shortened or Dilated Primary Axis.—Of these we distinguish two varieties — the Capitulum or Anthodium, and the Umbel.

a. *The Capitulum, Anthodium, or Head*—This inflorescence is usually formed by a number of sessile flowers or florets crowded together on a receptacle, and the whole surrounded by an involucre (*fig* 197), but in some cases the florets are but few in number, and in other capitula the involucre is absent. The receptacle, as we have seen (*page* 105), may be either flattened, as in the Cotton Thistle (*fig* 225), or slightly convex, as in the Dandelion, or conical, as in the Chamomile, or globular, as in the American Button-bush, or elliptical &c, by which a variety of forms is given to the different capitula.

This kind of indefinite inflorescence, as well as all others

FIG 226



FIG 227

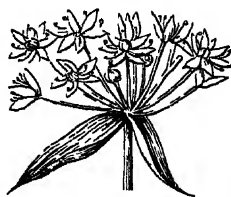


Fig 226 Capitulum of Scabious (*Scabiosa*)
The outermost floret, may be observed to be more expanded than the inner—*Fig* 227 Simple umbel of a species of *Alnus*

in this division with shortened or dilated primary axes, exhibits a centripetal order of expansion. This may be well seen in the capitulum of the Scabious (*fig* 226), where the outer florets are fully expanded, those within them less so, and those in the centre in an unexpanded condition. Here therefore the order of expansion is towards the centre—that is, *centripetally*. The capitulum is the universal form of inflorescence in plants of the natural orders Compositæ and Dipsacæ; and is also found, more or less, in some orders allied to these.

The arrangement of the flowers in the Fig (*fig* 204) and Doistenia (*fig* 205) also closely resembles that of an ordinary capitulum, and such arrangements are sometimes regarded as

special varieties of the capitulum, but the involucre is in these inflorescences always absent, and the flowers are developed centrifugally, as in the *glomerule* (page 122)

b. *The Umbel*—When the primary axis is shortened, and gives off from its apex a number of secondary axes or pedicels of nearly equal length, each bearing a flower, an *umbel* is formed (fig 227), as in the Onion and Cowslip. When the secondary axes themselves divide, and form tertiary axes, which are also arranged in an umbellate manner, a *compound umbel* is produced. This is seen in the Carrot (fig 196), the Fennel (fig 228),

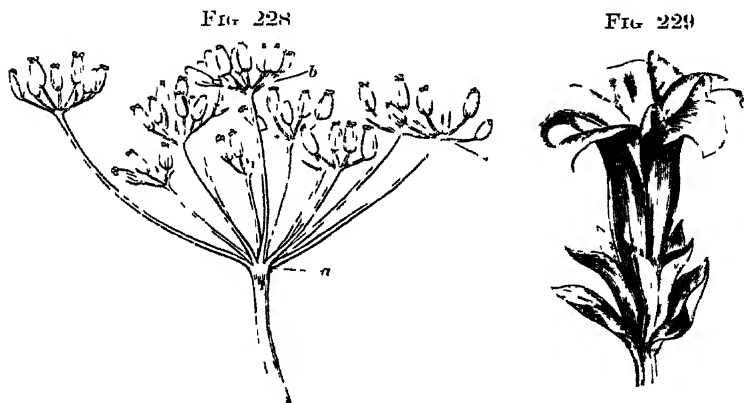


Fig 228 Compound umbel of Fennel. *a* General umbel. *b, b, b* Partial umbels or umbellules.—Fig 229 Portion of the floral axis of a species of Gentian (*Gentiana acutis*), terminated by a solitary flower, below which are two bracts

and other allied plants, which are hence called *umbelliferous*, and give the name to the natural order Umbelliferae. In the compound umbel (fig. 228), the primary umbel *a* is called the *general umbel*, and the other umbels, *b, b, b*, formed by the division of this, *partial umbels* or *umbellules*. When the base of the general umbel is surrounded by a whorl of bracts (fig. 196, *a*) they constitute a *general involucre*, and if other bracts, *b, b*, are arranged in a similar manner around the partial umbels, each of these whorls of bracts forms an *involucre* or *partial involucre*. These varieties of arrangement have been already alluded to when speaking of bracts (page 100).

Definite, or Cymose Inflorescence

In all kinds of definite inflorescence the primary axis, as we have seen, page 104, is arrested in its growth at an early age by the development of a terminal flower-bud, and if the axis bears no other flower this is called a *solitary terminal* flower, and is the simplest form of this variety of inflorescence. Examples of

FIG. 230

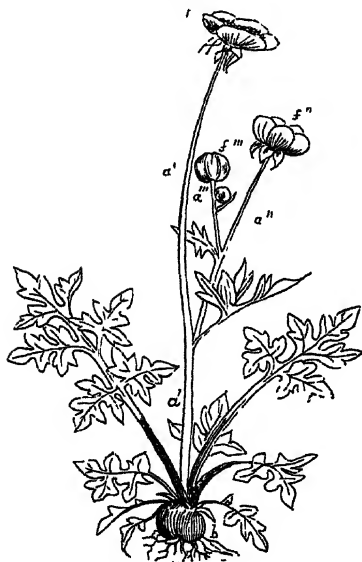


Fig. 230. A plant of *Ranunculus bulbosus*. *a'*, *a'* Primary axis terminated by a fully expanded flower, *f'*. *a''* Secondary axis, which is also terminated by a flower, *f''*, not so fully developed as *f'*. *a'''* Tertiary axis terminated by a flower bud, *f'''*, which is less developed than *f'* and *f''*.

this may be seen in the Stemless Gentian (fig. 229), and in the Wood Anemone (*Anemone nemorosa*). When other flowers are produced on such an axis, they must necessarily arise from axillary flower-buds placed below the terminal flower-bud, and if these form secondary axes (fig. 230, *a'*), each axis will in like manner be arrested in its growth by a terminal flower-bud *f''*, and if other axes *a'''* are developed from the secondary ones, these also must be axillary, and will be arrested in a similar manner by flowers *f'''*, and these axes may also form other axes of a like character, and so on. Hence this mode of inflorescence is *definite*, *determinate*, or *terminal*, in contradistinction to the former or indefinite mode of inflorescence already described, where the primary axis elongates indefinitely

unless stopped by some extraneous cause. Definite inflorescences are most common and regular in plants with opposite or whorled leaves, but they also occur in those which have alternate leaves, as for instance in the species of *Ranunculus* (fig. 230). In definite inflorescences the flower-buds necessarily follow a different order of expansion from those of indefinite inflorescences, because in them the terminal flower is the first developed and

consequently the oldest (*fig.* 230. *f'*), and other flower-buds are produced in succession from the apex to the base, if the axis be elongated, *f'' f'''*, or it shortened or dilated, from the centre to the circumference. The uppermost flower-bud of the elongated primary axis (*fig.* 230, *f*), and the central one of the shortened or dilated axis will accordingly open first, and the expansion of the other flower-buds will proceed in succession downwards, or towards the circumference, according to the character of the primary axis. Such an order of expansion is called *centrifugal* or *regressive*. Hence, while the indefinite kinds of inflorescences are characterised by an *acropetal*, *progressive*, or *centripetal* order of expansion, those of definite inflorescences are *regressive* or *centrifugal*.

FIG 231

Fig 231 Cyme of Laurustinus (*Viburnum Lino*)

Kinds of Definite or Determinate Inflorescence — The kinds of definite inflorescence are also termed *cymose*, as the general name of *cyme* is applied to all such inflorescences. But some are also distinguished by special names —

a *The Cyme*.—This term is applied generally to a definite inflorescence which is more or less branched, the whole being developed in a corymbose or somewhat umbellate manner, so as to assume either a flattened head, as in the Laurustinus (*fig.* 231), Dogwood, and Elder, or a rounded one, as in the Hydrangea, or more or less spreading, as in Cerastium (*fig.* 232) and Centaury (*fig.* 233). In the more perfect and compact form of cyme, as found in the Laurustinus and Elder, the flower-buds are all nearly perfect before any of them open, and then the

flowering takes place rapidly, commencing in the centre of the cyme, and then in the centre of each of its divisions, and thence proceeding in an outward direction, and as the central flower of each cluster corresponds to the apex of a branch, the expansion of the whole is centrifugal. By attention to this order of expansion such cymes may be always distinguished from indefinite kinds of inflorescence, such as the umbel or corymb, to which

FIG 232

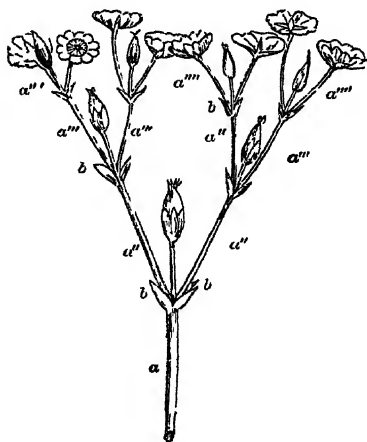


FIG 233

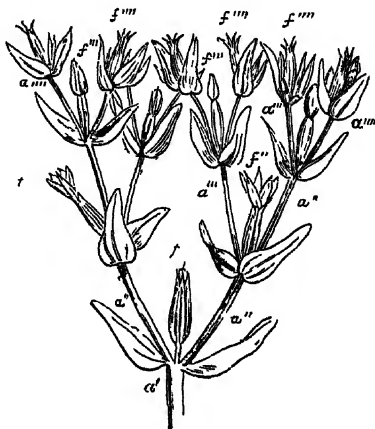


Fig 232 Dichasial cyme or Dichasium of a species of *Cerastium*, a' Primary axis terminated by a flower. a'' , a''' Secondary axes, two in number, arising from the axils of opposite bracts, b , b' , and terminated also by flowers a'' , a''' , a''' , a''' . Tertiary axes, four in number, arising from bracts, b , and bearing other bracts, b , from which the quaternary axes, eight in number, arise, a'''' , a'''' , a'''' , a'''' . The flowers are more developed on the primary axis than on the other axes, thus the one terminating that axis is in the state of fruit, the flowers of the axes of a'' and a''' are also in fruit, but less developed than that of a' , while in the axes a'''' the flowers only are expanded.—Fig 233 Dichasial cyme or Dichasium of the Centaury (*Eruka Centaurea*). a' , a'' , a''' , a'''' Floral axes f' , f'' , f''' , f'''' . Flowers terminating these axes respectively. The flowers will be observed to be most developed in proportion to their age, thus f' is in the state of fruit, f'' , f''' , expanded, f'''' , f'''' , f'''' , and the others still in bud.

otherwise they bear in many cases a great resemblance. In *Cerastium* (fig 232), and many other plants, the formation of the secondary, tertiary, and other axes a'' , a''' , a'''' , goes on throughout the growing season, and in such cymes, which are usually of a more or less spreading nature, the centrifugal order of expansion may be well observed.

The above cymes are sometimes characterised according to

the number of their branches • thus they are *dichotomous*, as in the common Centaury (fig. 233), when the primary axis a' is terminated by a flower f' , at the base of which are two bracts, each of which develops in its axil secondary axes a'' , a'' ending in single flowers, f'' , f'' and at the base of each of these flowers there are also two other bracts, from which tertiary axes a''' , a''' , are developed, also terminated by flowers f''' , f''' , and so on, and as the division in this case always takes place into two branches, the cyme is said to be *dichotomous*. The cyme of *Cerastium* (fig. 232) is also *dichotomous*. The



FIG 234

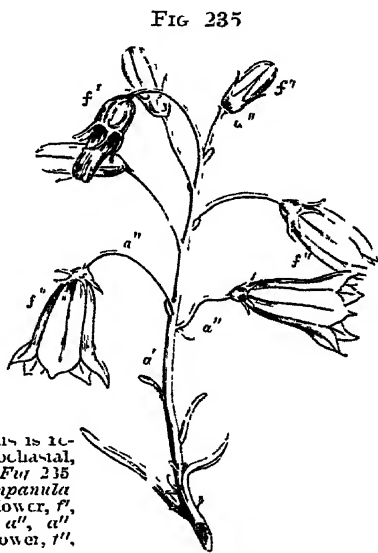


FIG 235

Fig. 234 Spiked cyme of *Sedum*. This is regarded by Sachs as a form of monochasial, unipitous, or unilaterial cyme.—Fig. 235 Racemose cyme of a species of *Campanula*. a' Primary axis terminated by a flower, f' , which is already withering. a'' , a'' , a'' Secondary axes, each ending in a flower, f'' , f'' , f'' .

dichotomous cyme is also called a *dichasium*. This is not a true dichotomous branching (see page 29), but only apparently so, in consequence of the greater development of the lateral branches as compared with that of the terminal one. When more than two secondary axes are given off below each flower, the inflorescence is known as a *polychasium*.

Cymes are also frequently characterised as corymbose, or umbellate, from their resemblance, except in the order of the expansion of their flowers, to the true corymb, or umbel, or as globose, linear, &c, according to their general form.

Besides the ordinary cyme and its varieties now mentioned, other kinds of cymose inflorescences have also received particular names, as the *Helicoid* and *Scorpioid Cymes*, the *Fascicle*, the *Glomerule*, the *Verticillaster*, and the *Cymose Umbel*. These we must now briefly describe.

b. *Helicoid Cyme*—The nature of this form may be understood by comparing it with the dichasium. If in each successive branching only one flower is produced under the terminal one,

FIG 236

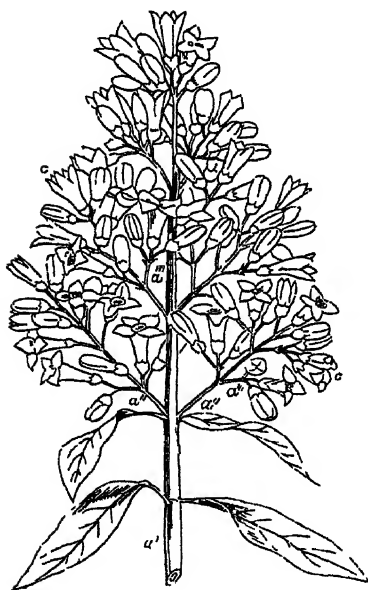


FIG 237



Fig 236 Panicle cyme of the Privet (*Ligustrum vulgare*) a' Primary axis a'', a'' Secondary axes a''', a''' Tertiary axes c, c The central flowers of the respective clusters, which are seen to be in a more expanded state than those surrounding or below them — Fig 237 Helicoid cyme of the Forget-me not (*Miosotis palustris*)

and that always on the same side, the other axis and its bract not being developed, we find the upper extremity is more or less coiled up in a circinate manner, so as frequently to resemble a snail shell. This kind of cyme is especially developed in plants belonging to the natural order Boraginaceæ, as the Forget-me-not (fig 237) and the Comfrey (fig 238).

c. *Scorpioid Cyme*—If instead of the suppression of the successive axes always taking place upon the same side they are suppressed upon the two sides alternately, we have the form

known as the Scorpioid Cyme. Instances of this form are found in *Helianthemum* (the Rock Rose), *Drosera* (the Sundew), &c.

Both these forms show apparently a single main axis from which a succession of flowers is given off, and from the subsequent growth of this axis, which is usually vigorous, a racemose inflorescence seems to be arrived at. The axis is, however, a sympodium, and the true nature of the arrangement may be ascertained by noticing the position of the bracts, which are opposite to the flowers instead of the latter being in their axils. The axillary branch coming from the insertion of the bract is in fact the next part of the sympodium, the subsequent growth

FIG. 234

Fig. 238 Helicoid cyme of Comfrey (*Symphytum officinale*)

having displaced the terminal flower and made it apparently lateral.

There is some doubt as to the true nature of the apparently helicoid cyme in cases where the bracts are not developed. Many botanists describe it as a unilateral raceme, that is, a raceme bearing its flowers only on one side of the monopodial axis (see *figs* 237 and 238). It is held by some botanists that in some at least of the Boraginaceæ the branching of the inflorescence is not lateral but dichotomous, the growing point of the successive axes after the first, dividing into two equal ones, one of which forms a flower and the other again dichotomises.

d *The Fascicle or Contracted Cyme*.—This name is applied to a cyme which is rather crowded with flowers placed on short

pedicels of nearly equal length, and arising from about the same point, so that the whole forms a flattened top, as in the Sweet William and some other plants of the Pink order to which it belongs.

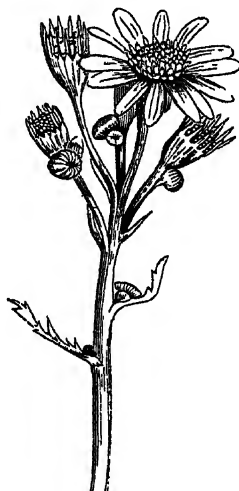
e *The Glomerule* — This is a cyme which consists of a few sessile flowers, or of those where the pedicels are very short, collected into a rounded head or short spike. Examples may be seen in many Labiate plants, in species of Nettle, and in the Box (*fig 239*).

f. *The Verticillaster* — This kind of cyme is seen in the



Fig 239 Inflorescence of the Box (*Buxus sempervirens*) — *Fig 240* Mixed inflorescence of a species of *Senecio*

Fig 240



White Dead-nettle (*fig 191*), and commonly in other plants of the Labiate order to which it belongs. In it the flowers appear at first sight to be arranged in whorls around the axis, but upon examination it will be seen that in each apparent whorl there are two clusters or glomerules axillary to two leafy bracts, the central flowers of which open first, and hence the mode of expansion is centrifugal. To these false whorls, thus formed of two axillary glomerules, the term *verticillaster* is frequently applied, but this variety of inflorescence is sometimes regarded as a contracted form of the dichasium.

g *The Cymose Umbel* — This much resembles the polycha-

sum. It can be distinguished from the true umbel by the centrifugal expansion of the flowers, the oldest being in the centre.

Mixed Inflorescence.

This kind of inflorescence is by no means uncommon. It is usually formed by the general inflorescence developing in one way, and the partial or individual inflorescences in another. Thus in plants of the natural order Compositæ (*fig. 240*) the terminal capitulum is the first to expand, and the capitula, as a whole, are therefore developed in a centrifugal manner, while the individual capitula open, as we have seen (page 114), their florets from the circumference to the centre, or centripetally, hence, here the general inflorescence is *definite*, and each partial inflorescence *indefinite*. In Labiate plants we have a directly reverse arrangement, for here the individual verticillasters open their flowers centrifugally (*fig. 191*), but the general inflorescence is centripetal, hence the general inflorescence is here *indefinite*, while each partial inflorescence is *definite*.

3 THE FLOWER

The term *flower* may be applied to any shoot which is specially modified in connection with spore production. The term is usually, but erroneously, restricted to the Phanerogams, in which this modification results in a structure generally of peculiar form and often of great beauty and fragrance. Flowers, however, of a lower type of complexity than these can be recognised in the Cryptogams. Thus, the cone of *Equisetum*, described above as a form of inflorescence, is by some considered as a single flower. In the so-called flowering plants the flowers are the ultimate branches or shoots of the inflorescence. They consist usually of an axis bearing leaves, of which some are *sporophylls* and bear the sporangia, others are *perianth leaves* and have only a function subordinate to the former. The apex of the axis itself sometimes constitutes the flower, as in the female flower of the Yew-tree, where particular branches bear at their apex a terminal macrosporangium or ovule, which is not protected by any foliar structures. In a few cases some of the sporangia are borne by the axis, and others by the sporophylls, as in the Polygonaceæ, the Dock family. The axis here terminates in a macrosporangium much as in the Yew, but this is covered in by a foliar outgrowth called the ovary. Lower down on the axis

are certain sporophylls, the stamens, which bear the microsporangia, while below these again are certain perianth leaves.

The phyllotaxis of the flower may be like that of the vegetative shoot, either alternate or whorled. In the former case the leaves describe a spiral round the axis, in the latter they form generally four definite whorls. Instances of the former may be seen in the male flowers of *Pinus* and other Conifers, and among the higher plants in the Water-lily.

Spiral phyllotaxis is most usual in the Gymnosperms, and whorled in the Angiosperms.

In one of the most highly organised of the flowers of the latter group we can recognise four whorls of leaves arranged upon an axis or thalamus. Usually the thalamus is terminated by the ultimate whorl of leaves, but in some cases it grows out beyond it, and may then bear a number of ordinary foliage leaves. This is, however, regarded as altogether abnormal, and only occurs in consequence of some disturbance of nutrition. The internodes of the axis between the whorls of leaves are usually not developed, so that the latter are very closely pressed together.

The two lower whorls of leaves constitute the perianth, and do not bear sporangia. The other two are sporophylls, and bear microsporangia and macrosporangia respectively.

The most external of the whorls is known as the *calyx*, and its leaves are called *sepals*. They are usually green, they resemble foliage leaves in their structure and sometimes in appearance, they are protective in function.

The second whorl is the *corolla*, and its leaves are *petals*. They are generally brightly coloured and delicate in texture.

In some flowers the calyx and corolla are very similar in appearance, being either green or *sepaloid*, or coloured or *petaloid*. In a few cases they stand so closely together that it is difficult to see that there are two whorls present. In such cases the whole envelope is called a *perianth*.

The third whorl is made up of the first set of sporophylls, and bears the microsporangia. This whorl is generally called the *andrium*, and its separate parts are *stamens*. These leaves are much modified in form, consisting of an upper swollen portion, the *anther*, supported upon a somewhat slender stalk or *filament*. The anther is sometimes sessile, the filament not being developed. Each anther usually contains two pollen-sacs, or microsporangia, in which are developed the microspores or pollen-grains.

The final whorl, which usually terminates the axis, is known as the *pistil* or *gynæcium*. The sporophylls of which it is composed are called *carpels*, and may be distinct from each other or united by their edges to form a solid body. The Buttercup and the Poppy are instances of these cases respectively. The carpels on the body formed by their union consist of a hollow interior part, the *ovary*, and a terminal sticky portion, the *stigma*. The stigma is sometimes sessile on the ovary, but is generally separated from it by a slender stalk-like portion the *style*. The macrosporangia or *ovules* are developed in the interior of the ovary, generally arising from a fleshy development of the edges of the carpel known as the *placenta*. Sometimes the placenta is borne upon the axis.

The true nature of the union of the carpels with each other will be discussed in a succeeding section.

It is customary to regard the carpels as sporophylls, even in those cases in which the macrosporangia really spring from the axis, in these cases protrudes into the cavity of the ovary, as in the Polygonaceæ, already mentioned. Other instances of this are found in the Primulacæ, the Primrose family.

Symmetry of the Flower.

The term 'symmetry' has been variously understood by different botanists. It was formerly usual to describe a flower

FIG 241

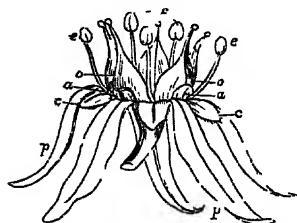


Fig 241 Flower of *Crassula rubens*. *s, s* Sepals *p, p* Petals *e, e, e* Stamens *c, c* Carpels, at the base of each of which is seen a scale, *a, a*

FIG 242



Fig 242 Flower of a *Sedum*

as symmetrical when all the whorls of its members have an equal number of parts, or when the parts of one whorl are multiples of those of another. Such a flower is preferably to be described as *isomerous*. Thus, in some species of *Crassula* (fig 241), we

have a flower composed of five sepals, five petals, five stamens, and five carpels, in *Sedum* (fig 242) we have five sepals, five petals, ten stamens in two rows, and five carpels, in the Flax we have five sepals, five petals, five stamens, and five carpels, each of which is partially divided into two by a spurious dissepiment (fig 421), in *Circæa* (fig 243) we have two members in each whorl, in the Rue (fig. 277) we have four or five sepals, four or five petals, eight or ten stamens, and a four- or five-lobed pistil, and in the Iris there are three members in each whorl. When the number of parts in each whorl does not correspond, or when the parts of a whorl are not multiples of one another, the flower is *heteromerous*, as in *Verbena*, where the calyx and corolla have five parts in each whorl, and the andrœcium and gynœcium only four.

In an isomerous flower the number of parts is indicated by a Greek numeral prefixed to the termination *-merous*. Thus,

FIG 243

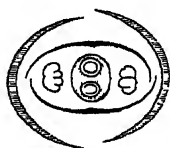


FIG 244



FIG 243 Diagram of the flower of *Circæa* — FIG 244 Diagram of the flower of *Staphylea pinnata*

when there are two parts in the whorls, as in *Circæa* (fig. 243), the flower is *dimerous*, and the symmetry is said to be *binary* or *two-membered*. This arrangement is thus marked, \surd . When there are three parts in a whorl, as in the Squill, Iris, and Lily, the flower is *trimerous*, and the symmetry is *ternary*, *triangular*, or *triangular*, it is indicated thus, \surd . When there are four parts in a whorl, as frequently in the Rue (fig 277), the flower is *tetramerous*, and the symmetry, which is marked \surd , is *quaternary* or *tetragonal*. When there are five parts in a whorl, as in *Crassula rubens* (fig 241), the flower is said to be *pentamerous*, and the symmetry, which is marked thus, \surd , *quinary* or *pentagonal*.

Of the above arrangements, the pentamerous is most common among Dicotyledons, although the tetramerous is also by no means rare, while the trimerous is generally found in Monocotyledons.

Although a symmetrical flower, as above described, necessarily infers that the parts in each whorl are equal to, or some multiple of one another, still it was very common for botanists to call a flower symmetrical when the three outer whorls correspond in such particulars, while the parts of the gynoecium are unequal to them, as in *Staphylea pinnata* (fig. 244), where the three outer whorls are pentamerous, while the pistil is dimerous. The gynoecium of all the organs of the flower is that which least frequently corresponds in the number of its parts to the other whorls.

By most botanists, however, a flower is said to be symmetrical when it can be divided by any vertical section into two precisely similar halves, the different halves produced by every such section being exactly alike. Such flowers as those of the Lily, or *Crassula* (fig. 241), are instances of this symmetry. A flower which is symmetrical in this sense is also called *actinomorphic*. Flowers which can only be divided by one such section into two similar halves are called *zygomorphic*. Such flowers are found in the Aconite, the Pea, the Dead-nettle, &c. The line through which the section must pass to bring about the result is called the *plane of symmetry*, it may be antero-posterior, as in the flowers mentioned, or lateral, as in the Fumitory, or oblique, as in some members of the Solanaceæ. When a division into two similar halves is not possible by a section in any plane, the flower is said to be *asymmetrical*.

Various other terms are used in describing flowers, which will be best alluded to here. Thus a flower is said to be *complete*, when the four whorls—calyx, corolla andrœcium and gynoecium—are present, as in the Rue (fig. 277), where one or more of the whorls is absent, the flower is *incomplete* (figs. 251 and 252). When the parts of each whorl are uniform in size and shape, as in the Rue, the flower is *regular*, under other circumstances it is *irregular*, as in the Pea (fig. 308).

In a normal arrangement of the parts of the flower, the successive whorls alternate with each other, as shown in figs. 241 and 243, thus here, the sepals alternate with the petals, the petals with the stamens, and the stamens with the carpels.

A perfectly normal and typical flower should possess a calyx, corolla, andrœcium, and gynoecium, each of which should be so arranged that its parts form but a single whorl, the different whorls should consist of an equal number of members, the parts of successive whorls should alternate with one another; and the members of each should be uniform in size and shape, and

distinct from each other and from the neighbouring whorls. This normal or typical flower is, however, liable to various alterations, arising from several disturbing causes, which modify and disguise one or more of its typical characters. Some of these causes have been already alluded to in the description of the different organs of the flower, but it will be necessary for us to investigate them more fully here, and classify them for systematic study. All the more important deviations of the flower from its normal character may be arranged under the following heads —

1. Irregularity of form in the members of one or more of the whorls

2 Multiplication of parts

3 Suppression or abortion of a whorl or part of a whorl

4 Displacement or interference with the regular alternation of the whorls

5 Coalescence of the parts or members of a whorl with one another

6 Coalescence of the members of one whorl with those of another

7 Substitution of spiral for whorled phyllotaxis

1 *Irregularity of Form* — This is most commonly seen in the perianth whorls. A sepal or a petal may develop a spur or prolongation downwards from its base, as in the Larkspur or the Indian Cress (*fig* 295). If only one such structure is formed the flower becomes zygomorphic. A great variety of form of both calyx and corolla is caused by unequal development of this kind, and it will be convenient to reserve a detailed examination of the most frequently occurring cases till we discuss these whorls in detail. Irregularity of this kind is also fairly common in the whorls of the sporophylls.

2 *Addition or Multiplication of Parts* — This may be considered under two heads. 1st The addition of one or more entire whorls in one or more of the floral cycles. 2nd An increase in the number of parts of one or more whorls. The former is commonly called *augmentation*, the latter *chorisis*, *deduplication*, or *unlining*.

a *Augmentation* — The increase in the number of whorls may occur in one or more of the floral cycles. Thus the Barberr (*fig* 245) has two whorls of sepals, two of petals, and two of stamens, in this flower, therefore, we have an addition of one whorl of organs to each of the three external floral circles. In the Poppy, we have a number of additional whorls of stamens (*fig* 246).

The increase in the number of the whorls is most common among the stamens. Very frequently there is one extra whorl intercalated here, so that the stamens are twice as numerous as the sepals or petals. So constant is this occurrence in Monocotyledons that many botanists regard two whorls of stamens as a normal feature of that group. Such flowers are said to be *diplostemonous*, in contradistinction from those with one whorl which are called *isostemonous*.

The new whorl generally falls into symmetrical position with the others, being alternate with the outer stamens on the one side and the carpels on the other. Sometimes, as in Geraniaceæ, this alternation is not observed, and of the two whorls of stamens the outer is opposite to the petals. This condition is known as *obdiplostemony*. In such a flower the departure from normal symmetry, due to multiplication, is complicated by a further one of displacement.

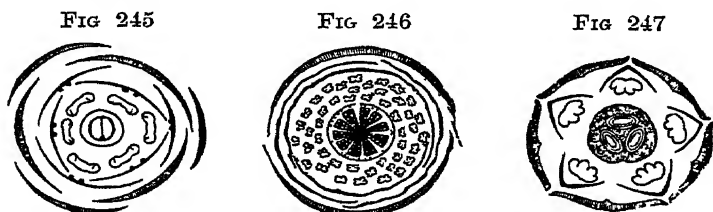


Fig 245 Diagram of the flower of the Barberry (*Berberis*) — Fig 246 Diagram of the flower of the Poppy (*Papaver*) — Fig 247 Diagram of the flower of Buckthorn (*Rhamnus catharticus*)

b *Chorisis or Deduplication* — This is generally looked upon by botanists as another means of multiplication of the parts of a flower. It consists in the division or splitting of a member in the course of its development, by which two or more members are produced in the place of one. Chorisis differs from augmentation in the fact that it not only increases the number of parts, but also interferes with their regular alternation, for augmentation does not necessarily interfere with alternation, though it may obscure it when the number of additional parts is excessive, or when the whorls are crowded together.

Chorisis may take place in two ways, either transversely, when the increased parts are placed one before the other, which is called *vertical*, *parallel*, or *transverse chorisis*, or collaterally, when the increased parts stand side by side, which is termed *collateral chorisis*.

Transverse chorisis is supposed to be of frequent occurrence, thus the petals of *Lychnis* (fig 327, a) and many other Caryophyllaceous plants exhibit a little scale on their inner surface at the point where the limb of the petal is united to the claw. A somewhat similar scale, although less developed, occurs at the base of the petals of some species of *Ranunculus* (fig 324). The formation of these scales is supposed by many to be due to the chorisis or unlining of an inner portion of the petal from the outer. Each petal of *Parnassia* (fig 326) has at its base a petal-like appendage divided into a number of parts, somewhat resembling sterile stamens, this is also stated to be produced by transverse chorisis.

In plants of the orders Rhamnaceæ (fig 247), and others, the stamens are placed opposite to the petals, hence they have been

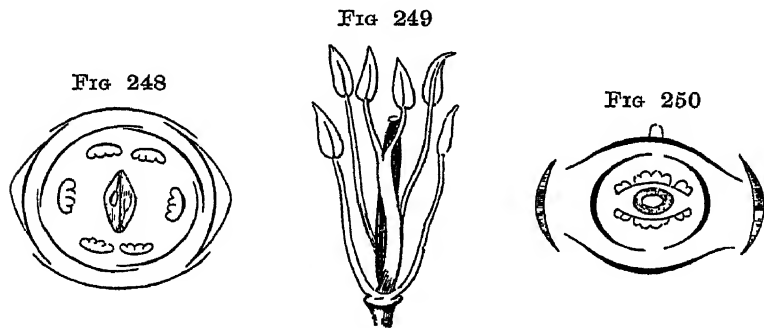


Fig 248 Diagram of the flower of the common Wallflower — Fig 249 Flower of a species of *Streptanthus*, with the floral envelopes removed, showing a forked stamen in place of the two anterior stamens. From Gray — Fig 250 Diagram of the flower of the Fumitory.

supposed by many botanists to be produced by chorisis from the corolla, but others explain this opposition of parts by supposing the suppression of an intermediate whorl. Transverse chorisis is frequently to be found in the andrœcium, but it is less frequent in the gynoecium. Examples of transverse chorisis in the gynoecium are furnished, however, by *Crassula* (fig 241), where each carpel has at its base on the outside a little greenish scale, *a, a*, which is supposed by some to be due to it.

It will be observed, that in the above cases of transverse chorisis, the parts which are produced do not resemble those from which they arise, and this appears to be a universal law in this form of chorisis.

Collateral Chorisus.—We have a good example of this form in the Stock, Wallflower, and other plants of the order Cruciferae (fig. 248). Within the perianth we find six stamens, of these two are placed opposite to the lateral sepals, while the other four are placed in pairs opposite the anterior and posterior sepals, we have here, therefore, four stamens instead of two, which result from the collateral chorisis of those two. In some Cruciferae, as *Streptanthus* (fig. 249), we have a strong confirmation of this view presented to us in the fact that, in place of the two stamens, as commonly observed, we have a single filament forked at the top, and each division bearing an anther, which would seem to arise from the process of chorisis being arrested in its progress. The flowers of the Fumitory are also generally considered to afford another example of collateral

FIG 251

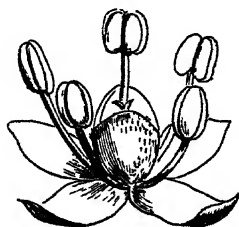


FIG 252

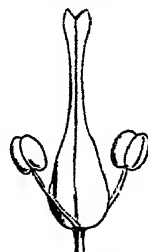


Fig 251 Flower of Goosefoot (*Chenopodium*), with only one floral envelope (*monochlamydeous*). — Fig 252 Flower of the common Ash (*Fraxinus*), in which both floral envelope, are absent (*achlamydeous*)

chorisis. In these we have two sepals (fig. 250), four petals in two rows, and six stamens, two of which are perfect, and four more or less imperfect; the latter are said to arise from collateral chorisis, one stamen here being divided into three parts. Other examples of this form are by some considered to be afforded by the flowers of many species of *Hypericum* (fig. 262, f, f), in which each bundle of stamens is supposed to arise from the repeated chorisis of a single stamen. Another explanation of this structure will be found on page 187

3. *Suppression or Abortion*.—The suppression or abortion of parts may either pertain to entire whorls; or to one or more parts of a whorl. We shall treat this subject briefly under these two heads.

a. *Suppression or Abortion of one or more Whorls*.—We

have already stated that a complete flower is one which contains calyx, corolla, andræcium, and gynæcium. When a whorl is suppressed, therefore, the flower necessarily becomes incomplete. This suppression may either take place in the *floral envelopes*, or in the *sporophylls*.

Sometimes one whorl of the floral envelopes is suppressed, as in *Chenopodium* (fig 251), in which case the flower is *apetalous* or *monochlamydeous*, sometimes both whorls are suppressed, as in the common Ash (fig 252), when the flower is *naked* or *achlamydeous*.

When from such suppression only one perianth whorl is present, it is usual to speak of it as the calyx, though it may be

FIG 253



FIG 254

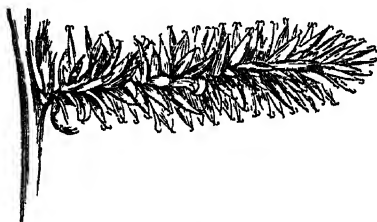


FIG 253 Staminate flowers of a species of Willow (*Salix*).—FIG 254 Pistillate or carpellary flowers of the same

petaloid or coloured as in *Caltha* and *Anemone*. Its calycine nature in these cases can be determined by a comparative examination of other closely related flowers, as the Hellebore, where the true petals have undergone a curious change of form. In some cases the calyx appears absent, as in the Valerians and most Umbelliferæ. It is, however, only partly lost, being united throughout most of its length with the ovary, and only exposing a rim at the top of the latter (fig 290).

Suppression of a whorl of sporophylls is not uncommon, in such a case the flower is said to be imperfect. The andræcium or gynæcium may be thus suppressed, in either of which cases the flower is *unsexual*, if both are suppressed, as in certain florets in some of the Compositæ, the flower is termed *neüter*.

When the stamens are abortive it is *pistillate* (fig 254), when the pistil is absent it is *staminate* (fig. 253)

b *Suppression of one or more Members of a Whorl*—This is a very common cause of deviation from normal structure, we can here only bring forward a few examples

This suppression of parts is most frequent in the gynoecium

FIG. 255

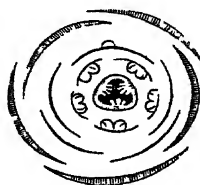


FIG. 256

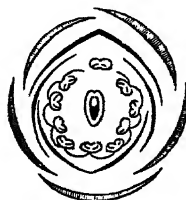


FIG. 257

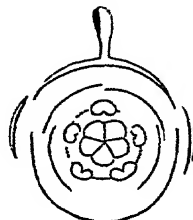


Fig 255 Diagram of the flower of the Heartsease — Fig 256 Diagram of a Leguminous flower — Fig 257 Diagram of the flower of *Impatiens nigriflora*

Thus in *Rhamnus* (fig 247), we have five sepals, five petals, five stamens, and three carpels, here two carpels are suppressed. In the Heartsease (fig 255) we have again a pentamerous flower, so far as the calyx, corolla, and androecium are concerned, but only three carpels, two carpels being here suppressed, in Leguminous

FIG. 258

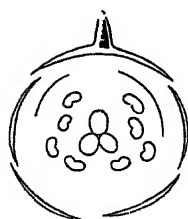


FIG. 259

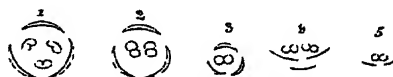


Fig 258 Diagram of the flower of *Triopolum pentaphyllum* — Fig 259 Diagram of flowers of Euphorbiaceous plants becoming more and more simple After Jussieu

- 1 Staminate flower of *Triopolum pentaphyllum*
- 2 " " *Triopolum pentaphyllum*
- 3 " " *Triopolum pentaphyllum*
- 4 " " *Triopolum pentaphyllum*
- 5 " " *Triopolum pentaphyllum*

plants (fig 256), we have five sepals, five petals, ten stamens, and only one carpel, four of the latter being here suppressed, in plants of the order Compositae the calyx, corolla, and androecium have each commonly five members, but only two carpels are present.

In some species of *Impatiens* (fig. 257), we have five carpels,

five stamens, and five petals, but only three sepals; here two sepals are suppressed, in *Tropæolum pentaphyllum* (fig 258), there are five sepals, and but two petals, three of the latter being here abortive. In the Labiatae and Scrophulariaceæ one of the stamens is commonly suppressed, and sometimes three, thus in *Lamium* we have five parts to the calyx and corolla, but only four stamens, and in *Salvia* we have also five parts to the calyx and corolla, but only two perfect stamens.

The abortion of whorls and parts of a whorl is well illustrated by plants of the Euphorbiaceæ, and the diagram from Jussieu (fig 259) will show this fact in a remarkable manner. Thus, in No 1 we have a flower consisting of but two whorls, the petals and carpels being suppressed, in No. 2, while the same whorls are present, one of the stamens is absent; in No 3 two stamens are missing, in No. 4 the calyx is suppressed, and one stamen, the place of the calyx being occupied by three bracts, while in No 5 the place of the calyx is occupied by two bracts, and there is only one stamen present, this of itself constitutes the flower, which is thus reduced to its simplest condition.

Besides the above examples of the suppression of parts, there is another kind of suppression, to which the term *abortion* more properly applies. This consists in the *degeneration* or *transformation* of the parts of a flower. Thus in *Scrophularia* the fifth stamen is reduced to a scale, in the Umbelliferae the limb of the calyx is commonly abortive, while in the Compositæ it is either abortive (fig 291), membranous (fig 292), or reduced to a pappose form.

Stamens which have undergone such degeneration are known as staminodes. The anther is usually replaced by a somewhat foliaceous expansion which has no pollen-sacs.

In some cases such degeneration is accompanied by an increase in the number of the members of other whorls. In cultivated semi-double flowers we frequently find both stamens and carpels partially transformed into petals, and the number of the latter considerably increased.

4 *Displacement*—This results in the superposition of apparently successive whorls which in the normal flower are alternate with each other. In some cases it is only apparent, and is due to multiplication of the whorls, as in the Barberry already described. The result of the multiplication in the latter is that each petal has a stamen before and a sepal behind it (fig 245).

In the Lily-of-the-valley there is a six-parted perianth, each lobe of which has a stamen in front of it. This is not due,

however, to displacement. The perianth is the representative of two whorls of leaves which alternate with each other, and there are two whorls of stamens within the perianth, also regularly alternating. The flower being very small, the bases of all these leaves are crowded closely together, and the true relation of the parts can only be detected by careful examination.

In many cases, however, particularly in the corolla and andræcium, the members of two succeeding whorls are superposed. Allusion has been made to such displacement in the case of the stamens of obdiplostemonous flowers, the outer whorl of which is superposed upon the petals, while the inner one stands opposite to the sepals. In several natural orders — *Plumbaginaceæ*, *Primu-*

FIG 260.

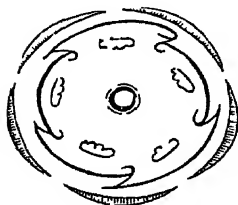


FIG. 261



FIG 262

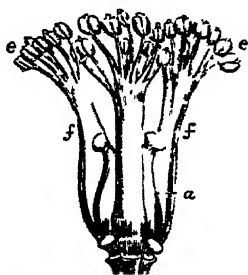


Fig. 260 Diagram of the flower of a species of *Plumbago* — Fig. 261. Monadelphous stamens of *Malva* — Fig. 262 Triadelphous stamens of a species of *Hypericum*

laceæ, and *Rhamnaceæ*, for example — the stamens, which are isostemonous, stand each in front of a petal (*figs* 247 and 260).

The anteposition is generally explained by the suppression of an external whorl of stamens between those remaining and the petals. Traces of these missing stamens are seen in some flowers, thus in *Samolus*, a genus of *Primulaceæ*, there is found in this position in the flower a whorl of staminodes.

5. *Cohesion of Parts, or the Coalescence of the Members of the same Whorl* — We have seen that in the typical flower the members of each whorl of floral leaves are distinct from each other. This is, however, very frequently not the case, the calyx, instead of being evidently formed of a number of sepals, appears like a more or less cup-shaped body with a number of teeth. The cup may be cleft nearly to the base, or the teeth may be very small and almost inconspicuous. The corolla, again, may be evidently detachable as a single structure. The

teeth may be regular or irregular in size and shape, giving rise to many forms which will be described in detail later. The staminal whorl is less frequently affected by this coalescence, but it is extremely common in the pistil.

When a perianth whorl is made up of separate leaves it is said to be *polysepalous*, or *eleutherosepalous*, *eleutheropetalous*, &c. When coalescence has taken place, it is called *gamosepalous* or *-petalous*. When the stamens are united thus by

FIG. 263



FIG. 264

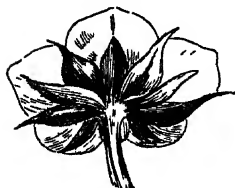


FIG. 265

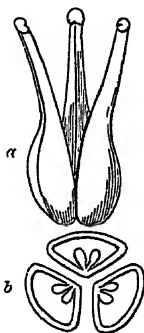


FIG. 266

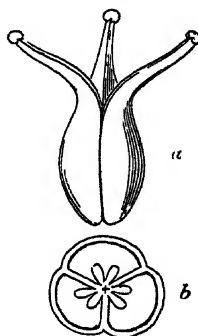


FIG. 263 Apocarpous pistil of the Pheasant's eye (*Adonis*) — FIG. 264 Flower of Strawberry, with stipular epicalyx — FIG. 265 *a* Diagram of three carpels, placed side by side, but not united *b* A transverse section of the ovaries of the same — FIG. 266 *a* Diagram of three carpels united by their ovaries, the styles and stigmas being free *b* A transverse section of the ovaries of the same

their filaments, they are said to be *monadelphous*, as in the Mallow (fig 261). Sometimes the apparent union does not include all the stamens, but these are gathered together into two or more bundles or phalanges, as in *Hypericum* (fig 262).

A pistil whose carpels are distinct is said to be *apocarpous*, as in the Buttercup and Pheasant's-eye, one in which they are united is called *syncarpous*, as in the Lily. The union may be confined to the ovary, or may extend to the style and stigma.

Sometimes the coalescence of the members of the whorl involves also those of the next whorl above it. Thus, in the Lily-of-the-valley both perianth whorls, which were originally alternating with each other, have all coalesced into a six-toothed

bell, appearing like a gamopetalous corolla. These are said to be *gamophyllous*.

In *Rosa*, *Potentilla*, and a few other plants of the same family, the cohesion of the sepals is still more complicated by the fact that each sepal is stipulate, and the stipules also are coalesced into what resembles a whorl of bracts below the calyx (fig. 264). This is known as an *epicalyx*, it must not be confused with the epicalyx of the Mallow, which has a different origin, as already described (page 99).

Though the term *cohesion* has been used to describe this coalescence, it must not be supposed that parts originally free have become united. The young leaves originate on the thalamus as separate outgrowths, but the apical growth soon stops, and basal growth leads to the outgrowth of the whole annular zone of the young receptacle on which the leaves have appeared. This zone is really composed of the bases of the separate leaves, which are developed thus together, much as are the wings of the separate branches of the epipodium of a pinnatifid leaf.

A few cases of true cohesion of parts originally free are met with. Thus in *Asclepias* the stigmas cohere together and to the anthers of the flower. In a species of *Lonicera* the ovaries of two opposite flowers of an inflorescence unite to form a connate fruit.

Where the stamens of a flower are gathered into several bundles, as in *Hypericum*, the condition is probably due to the branching of a corresponding number of original protuberances.

Other cases of cohesion will be referred to later.

6 *Adhesion of Parts, or Coalescence of the Members of one Whorl with those of another*—This again is a very common disturbance. Normally, the several whorls are placed upon the thalamus in such a way that their acropetal order of succession can be recognised. The ovary stands at the apex of the thalamus, and is said to be *superior*. The calyx is as evidently the lowest whorl, and is termed *inferior*. The corolla and stamens springing from below the ovary are said to be *hypogynous* (fig. 267).

Often, however, the base of the calyx is found to be spread out into a sort of cup, and the petals and stamens appear to spring from it at a little distance from the thalamus. The corolla and stamens are then said to be *perigynous* (fig. 269, fig. 268). The cup of the calyx bearing the stamens and petals may surround and closely embrace the ovary, when the latter is

said to be inferior, and the corolla and stamens are *epigynous* (fig 270). Though the pistil appears to bear the other whorls upon its apex, this is not really the case, it is always the terminal whorl.

FIG 267

FIG 268.

FIG 269

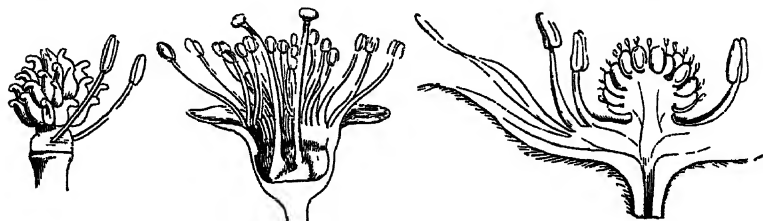


Fig 267 Hypogynous stamens of Buttercup — Fig 268 Perigynous stamens of Cherry — Fig 269 Perigynous flower of Strawberry

Another interpretation of the structure of the inferior ovary is possible in many cases. It may arise from the early suppression of the apical growth of the thalamus and the continuation of the development of its peripheral tissue, which thus rises as an annular zone or cup. On the margin of this cup are

FIG 270

FIG 271

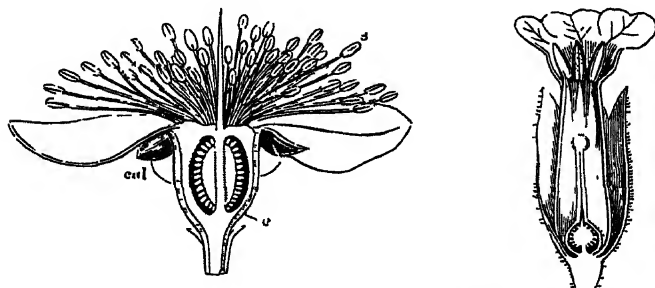


Fig 270 Epigynous flower of Myrtle — Fig 271 Epipetalous stamens of Mimosa

developed successively the perianth, stamens, and carpels. The latter close in above the cup and cover over its cavity, extending some distance downwards internally. The outer wall of the ovary is so formed not of the calyx tube, but of the hollowed-out

thalamus or receptacle. This view of its origin is supported by the fact that in some cases the ovary of the Gooseberry is found to have one or two small foliage leaves springing from it, indicating the arial nature of the outer wall

Adhesion between the stamens and petals is very common. It is generally associated with cohesion in the corolla, and is accounted for by the outgrowth from the receptacle of an annular zone from which spring both petals and stamens. These arise from it by apical growth at first, but this is soon replaced by basal as before described, and the whole of the bases of the two whorls are so developed as a single band of tissue. The origin is thus comparable to the fusion of all the perianth leaves in the

FIG 272



Fig 272 Flower of the White Water-lily (*Nymphaea alba*) reduced in size After Jussieu *c, c, c, c* The sepals *p, p, p, p* Petals *e* Stamens The parts on the right show the gradual transition from the calyx, *c*, to the petals, *p*, and from these organs to the stamens, *e*. The stamens from 1 to 5 are gradually more distinctive

Lily of-the-valley already described. Such an arrangement of stamens is called *epipetalous* (fig 271)

7. *Spiral Phyllotaxis*.—This is less common than the other cases of interference with normal symmetry. There are two degrees in which it exists *a*. The whole of the floral leaves may be arranged spirally, as in the Water-lily (*Nymphaea*) (fig. 272). Here the members of the separate whorls show gradual transition from one form to the next. The outer leaves are green and sepaloid, as we pass inwards their green hue is gradually replaced by white, till they are evident petals; there is a similar transition from petals to stamens, the leaves becoming narrower and indications of anthers appearing at their summits, till the definite staminal form is reached. Such flowers are

known as *acyclic*. *b.* The perianth may be in whorls and the sporophylls arranged spirally. This is the case in the Buttercup, where there are two series of spirals, the andrœcium and gynœcium. They do not show a transition to each other as in the former case. The flower of the Buttercup is termed *hemicyclic*.

Other forms of interference with normal symmetry are due to modification of the floral axis or thalamus. These will be discussed later. Sometimes a flower which is normally zygomorphic, from a single petal being spurred, becomes regular, developing spurs to all its petals. Such a flower is called *peloric*.

THE PARTS OF THE FLOWER.

We must now examine the structure of the flower in greater detail, dealing with the axis and its modifications, and with the peculiarities of the separate floral whorls.

(1) THE THALAMUS

The extremity of the peduncle or pedicel, or any part of the axis upon which the parts of a solitary flower are arranged, has been variously distinguished by botanists as the *thalamus*, *receptacle*, and *torus*.

In the majority of plants it is a little flattened surface or point, and accordingly presents nothing remarkable, but in other plants it becomes much enlarged, and then assumes a variety of appearances, and thus modifies to a considerable extent the form of the flower. In the species of *Magnolia*, *Linodendron*, and plants of the order Magnoliaceæ generally, the thalamus is cylindrical (*fig* 407, *a*), in plants also of the order Anonaceæ it usually acquires a somewhat similar form, in the Raspberry (*fig* 409, *b*) and species of *Ranunculus* (*fig* 267) it is conical, in the Strawberry (*fig* 269) hemispherical, in *Nelumbium* (*fig* 273, *thal*) it is a large tabular expansion in which there are a number of cavities containing the separate carpels. In the Rose it forms a concavity upon which the carpels are placed (*fig* 280, *r*, *i*).

In the Primulaceæ, Santalaceæ, and in all cases where the placenta is free from the wall of the ovary from its earliest appearance, the thalamus becomes prolonged into the cavity of the ovary and forms the *placenta* (*fig* 438). At other times the thalamus becomes prolonged beyond the ovary, as in the Geraniaceæ and Umbellifereæ, this prolongation is termed a *carpopophore*. In the species of *Geranium* (*fig* 443, *c*), this carpopophore

forms a long beak-like process to which the carpels, *car*, are attached, and from which they separate when the fruit is ripe. In many cultivated flowers, as in the Rose, the thalamus will sometimes acquire a monstrous development, and become extended beyond the flower into a branch bearing foliage leaves.

FIG 273

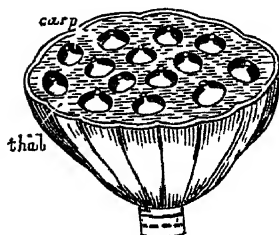


FIG. 274



FIG 275.

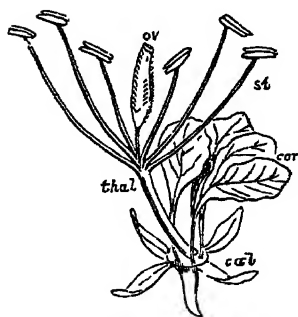


Fig 273 *thal* Thalamus of *Nelumbium* *carp* Carpel — Fig 274 Monstrous development of the flower of the Rose, showing the axis prolonged beyond the flower and bearing foliage leaves — Fig 275 Flower of a species of *Gynandropsis*, belonging to *Capparidaceae* (*cal* Calyx *cor* Corolla *thal* Prolonged thalamus or gynophore, supporting the stamens, *st*, and ovary, *ov*)

(fig. 274). To this prolongation of the axis beyond the flower the term *median proliferation* is usually applied.

In some plants one or more internodes of the thalamus become elongated and form a stalk to the ovary, to which the term *gynophore* has been applied, this usually happens between the

perianth and the sporophylls. Examples of this may be seen in some of the Capparidaceæ (fig. 275, *thal*); in the Pink (fig. 405, *g*), *Dictamnus* (fig 427, *g*), and *Xanthoxylon* (fig 411, *g*)

Sometimes the thalamus presents certain modifications of

FIG 276

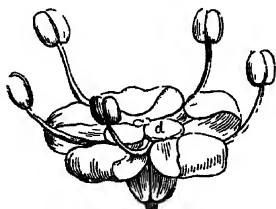


FIG 277

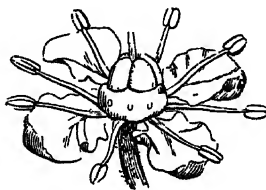


Fig 276 Flower of the Fennel (*Foeniculum capillaceum*) The ovary is surmounted by a disk, *d* — Fig 277. Flower of the Rue (*Ruta graveolens*) The pistil is surrounded by a disk in the form of a fleshy hypogynous ring, on the outside of which the stamens are inserted

form which are seen between the floral whorls. They are due to changes in particular internodes, and generally occur above the perianth leaves. Any such modification of the thalamus is known as the *disk*. Under this term we include all bodies of

FIG 278

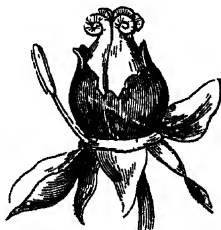


FIG 279



Fig 278 Pistil of the Tree Peony (*Paeonia Moutan* or *Moutan officinalis*) invested by a large cup shaped expansion or disk — Fig 279 Pistil of Stonewort (*Sedum*), consisting of five distinct carpels, on the outside of each of which at the base a small scaly body may be noticed. The pistil is compound and apocarpous

whatever form which are situated on the thalamus between the calyx and gynœcium, or which are upon or in connection with either of these organs, but which cannot be properly referred to them.

The disk is developed in a variety of forms; thus, in the

Orange and Rue (*fig. 277*), it forms a fleshy ring surrounding the base of the pistil, in the Tree Pæony (*fig. 278*), it occurs as a dark red cup-shaped expansion covering nearly the whole of the pistil except the stigmas; in the Rose and Cherry (*fig. 268*), it forms a sort of waxy lining to the tube of the calyx, and in Umbelliferous plants the disk constitutes a swelling on the top of the ovaries adhering to the styles (*fig. 276, d*), this latter form of disk has been termed the *stylopodium*. In other cases the disk is reduced to little separate glandular bodies, as in some Cruciferous plants, or to scales, as in the Stonecrop (*fig. 279*), and Vine (*fig. 344*), or to various petaloid expansions, as in the Columbine.

When the disk is situated under the ovary, as in the Orange and Rue (*fig. 277*), it is termed *hypogynous*; when it is attached to the calyx, as in the Rose and Cherry (*fig. 268*), it is *perigynous*; or when on the summit of the ovary, as in Umbelliferous plants (*fig. 276, d*), *epigynous*, these terms being used in the sense already described.

(2) THE WHORLS OF PERIANTH LEAVES

a *The Calyx*

We have already stated that the calyx is the outermost envelope of the flower, and that it is composed of one or more leafy organs called *sepals*. These sepals are usually green like the foliage leaves, by which character they may, in most cases, be distinguished from the petals, as well as by the position and more delicate texture of the latter. There are numerous instances, however, especially when the number of petals is much increased, in which there is a gradual transition from the sepals to the petals, so that it is difficult or almost impossible to say, in many cases, where the calyx ends and the corolla begins. The White Water-lily (*fig. 272*) affords a familiar and good illustration of this. In some plants, again, the green colour disappears, and the calyx becomes coloured with the same tints as the corolla, or with some other bright hues. In such cases it is said to be *petaloid*, and the chief distinctive character between it and the corolla is then afforded by its position on the outside of the latter organ. The Fuchsia, Indian Cress, Columbine, Larkspur, and Monkshood may be mentioned as affording familiar examples of a petaloid calyx amongst Dicotyledons. In Monocotyledons generally, as in the Lily, Iris, Tulip, Crocus, and Squill, the two floral envelopes are

usually coloured, although sometimes green, and in other respects so closely resemble each other, that we then use the collective name of *perianth* to indicate the two whorls taken together. When there is but one whorl of floral envelopes, as in the Goosefoot (*fig* 251), it is customary to call this the calyx, whether it is coloured or green.

In their structure, venation, and characters generally, the sepals resemble the foliage leaves. They exhibit various cha-

FIG 280

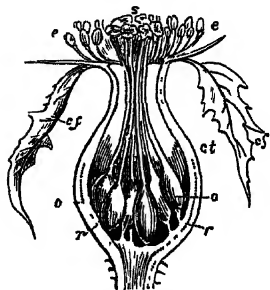


FIG 281



FIG 282.

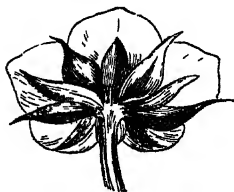


FIG 283



Fig 280 Vertical section of the flower of the Rose, , , Concave thalamus, upon which are placed several sepals, *o, o*, each of which is furnished with a style and stigma, *s, s, s*. *Stamens* *ct* Tube of the calyx, *f, f* Free portions of the calyx divided at their margins — *Fig* 281 Calyx of *Rumer unguis*, after Jussieu *ce* Outer divisions of the calyx which are entire *u* Inner divisions with hooked teeth at their margins *g* Swelling on one of the inner divisions — *Fig* 282 Flower of Strawberry (*Fr agaria*) with a regular polysepalous calyx surrounded by a whorl of leafy organs, to which the name of epicalyx is applied — *Fig* 283 Flower of Monkshood (*Aconitum Napellus*), with an irregular polysepalous calyx. The upper sepal is hooded or helmet-shaped.

acters as regards their figure, margins, apex, &c, although they are by no means so liable to such numerous variations in these particulars as the blades of foliage leaves exhibit. The terms used in defining these modifications are applied in the same sense as with the blades of leaves.

Sepals are almost without exception destitute of a stalk, or, in other words, they are sessile upon the thalamus. They are also generally entire at their margins, although exceptions to

this latter character occasionally occur thus, in the Peony and Rose (figs 280, cf, and 302, cf), the sepals are incised in many species of Dock they are toothed (fig 281, cf); in *Chamaelaurum plumosum* each sepal is divided into five deep lobes or partitions, and in *Pasiflora foetida* the sepals are first pinnatisected, and then each segment pinnatifid.

In their direction, the sepals are either *erect* or turned upwards, *connivent* or turned inwards, *divergent* when spreading outwards, or *reflexed* when their extremities are turned downwards.

The sepals may be either distinct from each other, as in the Poppy, Buttercup, Wallflower, and Strawberry (fig 282), or more or less united into one body (figs 284-286), as in the Pimpernel (fig 284), Campion (fig. 286), and Henbane (fig. 287). In the former case the calyx is usually termed *polysepalous*, *polyphyllous*, or *dialysepalous*, in the latter it is commonly called *gamosepalous*.

1 POLYSEPALOUS, POLYPHYLLOUS, OR DIALYSEPALOUS CALYX

A polysepalous calyx may consist of two or more parts, the number being indicated by the prefix of Greek numerals, as *disepalous* for a calyx composed of two distinct sepals, *trisepalous* for one with three, *tetrasepalous* if it has four, *pentasepalous* if five, *hexasepalous* if six, *heptasepalous* if seven, and so on.

A polysepalous calyx is called *regular* if it consists of sepals of equal size and like figure or form, and arranged in a symmetrical manner, as in the species of *Ranunculus* (fig. 280), and it is said to be *irregular* when these conditions are not complied with, as in the Monkshood (fig 283).

2 GAMOSEPALOUS CALYX.—When the sepals are united so as to form a gamosepalous calyx, various terms are used to indicate the different degrees of union. Thus, the union may only take place near the base, as in the Pimpernel (fig 284), when the calyx is said to be *partite*, or it may take place to about the middle, as in the Centaury (fig 285), when it is *left* or *fissured*, or the sepals may be united almost to the top, as in the Campion (fig 286), when it is *toothed*, or if the union is quite complete, it is *entire*. The number of partitions, fissures, or teeth is indicated by the same prefixes as those previously referred to as being used in describing the divisions in the lamina of a leaf, thus, a gamosepalous calyx where the divisions are five would be described as *five-partite* or *quinquepartite*, *five-cleft* or *quinquefid*, *five-toothed* or *quinquedentate*, accord-

ing to the depth of the divisions. In like manner the terms *tripartite*, *trifid*, or *tridentate* would indicate that such a calyx was *three-partite*, *three-cleft*, or *three-toothed*, and so on. The

FIG 284



FIG 285



FIG 286



Fig 284 Partite interior calyx of the Pimpernel (*Anagallis*) — Fig 285 Cleft or fissured calyx of the Centaury (*Elythraea*) — Fig 286 Dentate or toothed calyx of Campion (*Lychnis*)

number of divisions in the majority of cases corresponds to that of the component sepals of which the calyx is formed, although exceptions to this rule sometimes occur, as for instance in those

FIG 287



FIG 289

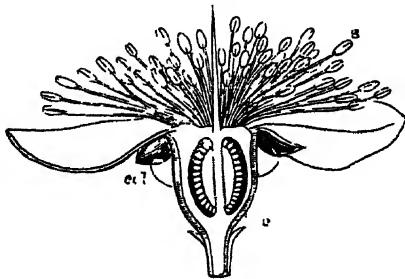


FIG 288



Fig 287 Tricelate calyx of the Henbane (*Hyoscyamus*) — Fig 288 Bilabiate calyx of the Dead-nettle (*Lamium*) — Fig 289 Vertical section of the flower of the Myrtle (*Myrtus communis*) cal Tube of the calyx adherent to the ovary, o Stamens

cases where the divisions are themselves divided into others. A little care in the examination will, however, generally enable the observer to distinguish the primary from the secondary divisions. When a gamosepalous calyx is entire, the number

of sepals can then be ascertained by the venation, as the principal veins from which the others diverge generally correspond to the midribs of the component sepals. In a gamosepalous calyx in which the union exists in a marked degree, the part where the sepals are united is called the *tube*, the free portion the *limb*, and the orifice of the tube the *throat* or *funnel* (figs. 286-288).

If the union between the sepals is unequal, or the parts are of different sizes, or of irregular figures or forms, the calyx is said to be *irregular* (fig. 298), if, on the contrary, the parts are alike in figure and form, of the same size, and united so as to form a symmetrical body, it is *regular* (fig. 287). Some varieties of the irregular and also of the regular calyx have received special names. Thus in the Dead-nettle (fig. 288), the irregular calyx is said to be *labiate*, *bilabiate*, or *lipped*, because the five sepals of which it is composed are united in such a manner as to form two lips. Of the regular forms of the gamosepalous calyx a number are distinguished under the names of *tubular*, *bell-shaped* or *campanulate*, *urceolate* (fig. 287), *conical*, *globose*, &c. The application of these terms will be further shown when speaking of the corolla, in which similar forms occur, and in which they are usually more evident.

The tube of a gamosepalous calyx, or of that of a perianth (the parts of which, like the sepals, are frequently united to a varying extent), sometimes adheres more or less to the ovary, as in the Iris, Myrtle (fig. 289, *cal*), in all the plants of the order Compositæ, and in those allied to it (figs. 290-292), and in numerous other plants. When this takes place, the calyx is said to be *adherent*, or, because it appears to arise from the summit of the ovary, *superior*, the ovary in such a case is then described as *inferior*. When the calyx is free, or quite distinct

FIG. 290 FIG. 291 FIG. 292

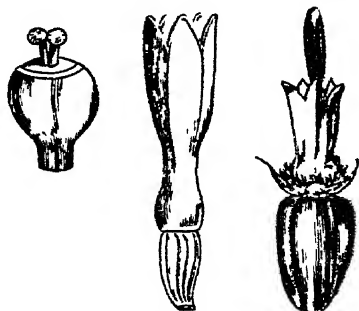


FIG. 290 Calyx of the Madia (*Rubia*), adherent to the ovary, with its limb reduced to a mere rim — FIG. 291 One of the tubular florets of the Ox-eye (*Chrysanthemum*). The calyx is completely united to the ovary and presents no appearance of a limb — FIG. 292 One of the tubular florets of the Sunflower (*Helianthus*). The limb of the adherent calyx is membranous.

from the walls of the ovary, as in the Pumpkin (fig 284), Wallflower, Poppy, and Buttercup, it is said to be *free*, *non-adherent*, or *inferior*, and the ovary is then termed *superior*.

When the calyx or perianth is thus adherent to the ovary, its limb presents various modifications thus in the Iris, Crocus, and Orchids, it is *petaloid*, in the Quince, *foliaceous* (fig 299), in the Sunflower (fig 292), and Chamomile, it is *membranous*, in the Madder (fig 290), it exists only in the form of a circular rim, while in the Ox-eye it is altogether absent (fig 291). In the two latter cases the calyx is commonly described as *obsolete*. In many plants of the order Compositæ and the allied orders Dipsacæ and Valerianacæ, the limb of the calyx is only

developed in the form of a circle or tuft of bristles, hairs, or feathery processes, to which the name of *pappus* is given, and the calyx under such circumstances is said to be *pappose*. The pappus is further described as *feathery* or *plumose*, and *simple* or *pilose*, thus it is *feathery*, as in the Valerian (fig

FIG 293

FIG 294

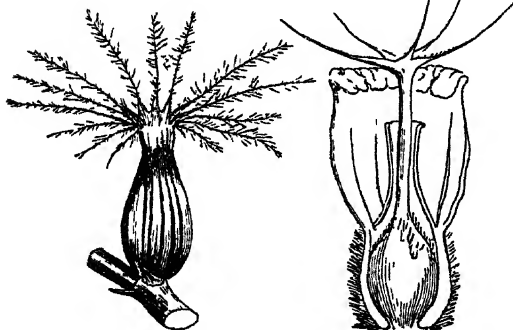


Fig 293 Fruit of the Valerian surmounted by a feathery sessile pappus. — Fig 294 Fruit of Scabious surmounted by a stalked pilose pappus.

293), when each of its divisions is covered on the sides by little hair-like projections arranged like the barbs of a feather, and *pilose*, when the divisions have no marked projections from their sides, as in the Dandelion and Scabious (fig. 294). The pappus is also described as *sessile* when it arises immediately from the tube of the adherent calyx, and thus apparently from the top of the ovary or fruit, as in the Valerian (fig. 293), and *stalked* or *stipitate*, if it is raised above the ovary or fruit, on a stalk, as in the Dandelion and Scabious (fig 294).

APPENDAGES OF THE CALYX.—The calyx, whether gamosepalous or polysepalous, is subject to various other irregularities besides those already alluded to, which arise from the

expansion or growing outwards of one or more of the sepals or the tube into appendages or processes of different kinds. Thus in the Monkshood (*fig* 283), the superior sepal is prolonged upwards into a sort of hood or helmet shaped process, in which case it is said to be *hooded*, *helmet shaped*, or *galeate*. In the Wallflower, and other plants of the Cruciferae, the two lateral sepals are expanded on one side at the base into little sacs, when they are termed *gibbous* or *saccate*. If the calyx has one or more tubular prolongations downwards, it is said to be *spurred*. Only one spur may be present, as in the Indian Cress (*fig* 295, *c*), where the spur is formed by three sepals, or in the Larkspur, where it is formed by one, or each of the sepals may be spurred. In the Pelargonium the spur, instead of being free from the pedicel as in the above instances, is united to it.

FIG 295

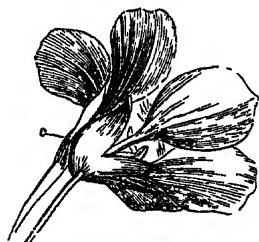


FIG 296

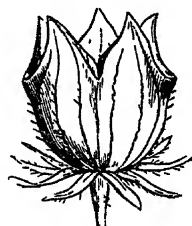


Fig 295 Flower of the Indian Cress (*Tropaeolum*) *c*
Spurred calyx
—*Fig* 296 Calyx of *Hibiscus* surrounded by an epicalyx or involucre

On the outside of the calyx of some flowers, as in those of many plants of the Mallow (*fig* 296), Pink (*fig* 300, *b*), and Rose orders (*fig* 282), there is placed a whorl of leaf-like organs which is considered by some botanists as an outer calyx, and to which the name of *epicalyx* or *calyculus* has been accordingly given. The true nature of this outer whorl in the several cases has already been discussed.

DURATION OF THE CALYX—The duration of the calyx varies in different flowers. Thus it is *caducous* or *fugacious*, when it falls off as the flower expands, as in the Poppy (*fig* 297). In the *Eschscholtzia* the calyx, which is caducous, separates from the hollow thalamus to which it is articulated, in the form of a funnel, or the extinguisher of a candle. A somewhat similar separation of the calyx occurs in the *Eucalyptus*, except that here the part which is left behind after the separation of the upper portion evidently belongs to the calyx, instead of to the

thalamus, as in the former instance. In these two latter cases the calyx is said to be *calyptrate* or *operculate*. When the calyx falls off about the same time as the corolla, as in the Crowfoot or Buttercup, it is called *deciduous*. In other cases the calyx remains after the flowering is over, as in the Henbane (fig 287), and Mallow, when it is described as *persistent*. When the calyx is adherent or superior it is necessarily *persistent*, and forms a part of the fruit, as in the Quince (fig. 299), Apple, Pear, Melon, and Cucumber. When it is persistent and assumes a shrivelled or withered appearance, as in the species of *Campanula*, it is *marcescent* or if it is persistent, and continues to grow after the flowering, so as to

FIG 297.

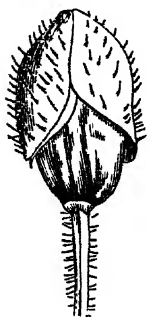


FIG 298

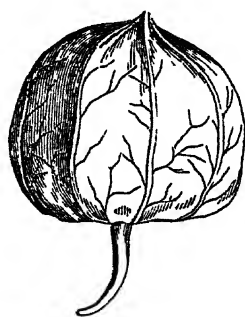


FIG 299

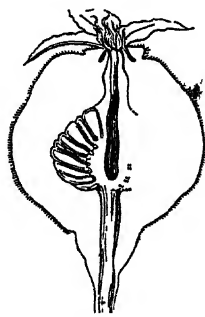


FIG 297 Flower of the Poppy, showing a caducous calyx — FIG 298 Accrescent calyx of the Winter Cherry (*Physalis Alkekengi*) — FIG 299 Vertical section of the fruit of the Quince (*Pyrus Cydonia*), showing the tube of the calyx adherent to the matured carpels, and forming a part of the pericarp, the free portion or limb being fleshy

form a bladdery expansion round the fruit, as in the Winter Cherry, and other species of *Physalis* (fig. 298), it is termed *accrescent*.

b The Corolla.

The corolla is the inner envelope of the flower. It consists of one or more whorls of leafy organs, called *petals*. In a complete flower (fig 241, p), it is situated between the calyx and andræcium, and is generally to be distinguished from the former, as we have already seen, by its coloured nature and more delicate structure. When there is but one whorl of floral envelopes, as we have also before noticed (page 132), this is to be considered

as the calyx, and the flower is then termed *apetaloid* or *monochlamydeous*. The corolla is usually the most showy and conspicuous part of the flower, in some rare cases, however, it is green like the calyx, as in certain *Cobaeas* and some *Asclepiadaceous* plants. The corolla is also, in the majority of flowers which possess odoriferous properties, the seat of those odours.

It is generally smooth, although hairs occasionally occur, as in the *Bombax*, when they exist they are usually coloured, as in the Buckbean and Iris. Petals are frequently narrowed below into a stalk-like portion, which corresponds to the

FIG 300

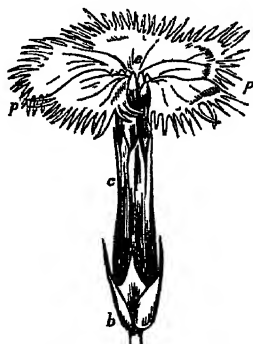


FIG 301



Fig 300 The flower of a species of Pink (*Dianthus*). *b* Bracts, forming an epicalyx or involucre. *c* Calyx. *p, p* Petals, the limbs of which are fringed at their margins. *s* Stamens.—Fig 301 One of the petals of the same flower. *o* Claw or unguis. *l* Limb, which is fringed at the margins.

petiole of a leaf, as in the Wallflower and Pink (fig. 301); the narrow portion is then termed the *unguis* or *claw*, *o*, and the expanded portion the *limb*, *l*, and the petal is said to be *unguiculate* or *clawed*. In this particular, petals must be considered to resemble the foliage leaves more than the sepals do, as the latter organs are almost without exception *sessile*, or destitute of claws.

The outline of the petals, like those of the sepals and leaves is subject to great variation. Thus, they may be *linear*, *oblong*, *lanceolate*, *elliptic*, *ovate*, *cordate*, &c. The application of these terms having been already fully explained when speaking of leaves, need not be further alluded to. The condition of their

margins also, the mode in which they are divided, and their terminations, are also indicated by the same terms as those previously described under similar heads in our chapter on Leaves. Thus the petals may be *dentate*, *seriate*, *cleft*, *partite*, *sected*, *acute*, *emarginate*, &c. One term is occasionally used in describing the conditions of the margins which has not been alluded to when speaking of the leaves, thus the petals are said to be *imbriated* or *fringed*, as in some species of *Dianthus* (figs 300 and 301, l), when they present long thread-like processes at their margins.

Again, the petals may be either flat, as is usually the case, or *concave*, *tubular*, *boat-shaped*, &c. These terms sufficiently explain their meaning. In texture the petals are commonly

FIG 302

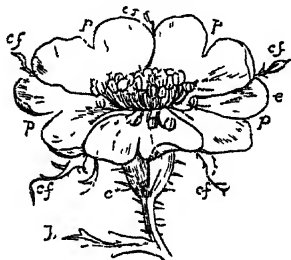


FIG 303

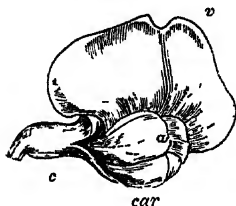


Fig 302 Flower of the Rose b Bract ct Tube of the calyx cf, cf, cf, cf Divisions of the calyx p, p, p, p, p Petals — Fig 303 The flower of the Sweet Pea (*Lathyrus odoratus*) c Calyx v Vexillum a Alae or wings car Carina or keel

soft and delicate, but they sometimes differ widely from this, and become thick and fleshy, as in the *Stapeliads*, or dry and membranous, as in the *Heaths*, or stiff and hard, as in *Xylopias*.

In describing their direction, we use the terms *erect*, *connivent*, *divergent*, *patulous*, or *reflexed*, in the same sense as already described when speaking of similar conditions of the sepals (page 145).

The petals also, like the sepals, may be either distinct or more or less united into one body. In the former case, the corolla is said to be *polypetalous* or *dialypetalous* (figs 300-303), in the latter, *gamopetalous* (figs 304-321).

1. POLYPETALOUS OR DIALYPETALOUS COROLLA —The number

of petals which enter into the composition of the corolla is indicated, as in the case of the polypetalous calyx, by the prefix of the Greek numerals. Thus a corolla of two petals is said to be *dipetalous*, of three, *tripetalous*, of four, *tetrapetalous*; of five, *pentapetalous*, of six, *hexapetalous*, of seven, *heptapetalous*, of eight, *octopetalous*, and so on.

When the petals are all of the same size, and of like figure or form, and arranged in a symmetrical manner, the corolla is termed *regular*, as in Rosaceous flowers (figs 282 and 302), but when the petals vary in these particulars, as in the Pea and allied plants (figs 256 and 303), it is said to be *irregular*. Some varieties of polypetalous corollas have received special

FIG. 304



FIG. 305



FIG. 306



Fig 304 Flower of *Spigelia marilandica*. c Calyx t Tubular corolla l Limb of the corolla s Summit of the style and stigmas—Fig 305 Flower of the Harebell (*Campanula rotundifolia*), showing a campanulate corolla—Fig 306 Flower of the Tobacco Plant (*Nicotiana glauca*), with infundibuliform corolla

names which we will now proceed to describe under the two divisions of *regular* and *irregular*.

A *Regular Polypetalous Corollas*—Of these we may mention three forms, viz the *cruciform* or *cruciate*, the *caryophyllaceous*, and the *rosaceous*.

1 *Cruciform or Cruciate*.—This corolla gives the name to the natural order *Cruciferae*, but it also occurs elsewhere. It consists of four petals, usually with claws, as in the Wallflower and Stock, but sometimes without claws, as in the Celandine, and the whole arranged in the form of a cross.

2 *Caryophyllaceous*.—This consists of five petals, with long claws enclosed in the tube of the calyx, and with their limbs

commonly placed at right angles to the claws, as in the Cam-
pion, Single Pink (figs 300 and 301), and Carnation.

3 *Rosaceous*.—This is composed of five petals, without, or with very short claws, and spreading in a regular manner, as in the Strawberry (fig. 282), and Single Rose (fig 302)

B *Irregular Polypetalous Corollas*—There are many anomalous forms of irregular polypetalous corollas to which no particular names are applied. There is one form, however, which is of much importance, namely, the *Papilionaceous*, which occurs in all British *Leguminosæ*. This derives its name from the fancied resemblance which it bears to a butterfly. It is composed of five petals (figs 303 and 464), one of which is superior or posterior, and commonly larger than the others, and is termed the *vexillum* or *standard* (fig. 303, *v*), two inferior or

FIG 307.



FIG 308.



Fig 307 Flower of a species of *Primula*. *c* Calyx, within which is seen a hypocrateriform corolla, *p* *t* Tube of the corolla *t* Limb — Fig 308 Flower of the Forget-me not (*Myosotis palustris*) *p* Rotate corolla, Scales projecting from its throat

anterior, which are usually more or less united and form a somewhat boat-shaped cavity, *car*, called the *keel* or *carina*; and two lateral, *a*, called the *wings* or *alæ*.

2 *GAMOPETALOUS COROLLA*.—When the petals unite so as to form a gamopetalous corolla, various terms are used as in the case of the gamosepalous calyx to indicate the degrees of cohesion, thus the corolla may be *partite*, *cleft*, *toothed*, or *entire*, the terms being employed in the same sense as with the calyx (see page 145). The part also where union has taken place is in like manner called the *tube*, *t*, the free portion, the *limb*, *l*, and the orifice of the tube, the *throat* or *fauces* (fig. 304)

The gamopetalous corolla, like the gamosepalous calyx, is *regular* when its parts are of the same size, and of like figure or form, and united so as to form a symmetrical body (figs. 304–309), or if these conditions are not complied with, it is

irregular (figs 310-321). Some varieties of both regular and irregular gamopetalous corollas have received special names, as follows —

A. *Regular Gamopetalous Corollas* — Of these we may describe the following —

1 *Tubular*, where the form is nearly cylindrical throughout, the limb not spreading, as in *Spigelia* (fig 304), and in the central florets of many *Compositæ* as the Ox-eye (*Chrysanthemum*), and Sunflower (*Helianthus*) (fig 292).

2 *Campanulate* or *bell-shaped*, when the corolla is rounded at the base, and gradually enlarged upwards to the summit, so as to resemble a bell in form, as in the Harebell (fig 305).

3 *Infundibuliform* or *funnel-shaped*, where the form of the

FIG 309

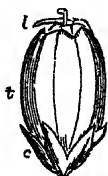


FIG. 310



FIG 311



Fig 309 Flower of a species of Heath (*Erica*) c Calyx, within which is an urceolate corolla, t, l — Fig 310 Ringent or gaping corolla of the Dead nettle (*Lamium album*), showing the entire upper lip — Fig. 311 Back view of the flower of a species of *Trucium*, showing the bifid upper lip of the corolla

corolla is that of an inverted cone, like a funnel, as in the Tobacco (fig 306)

4 *Hypocrateriform* or *salver-shaped* (fig. 307), when the tube is long and narrow, and the limb placed at right angles to it, as in the Primrose

5 *Rotate* or *wheel-shaped*, when the tube is short, and the limb at right angles to it, as in the Forget-me-not (fig 308) and Bittersweet (*Solanum Dulcamara*).

6 *Urceolate* or *urn-shaped*, when the corolla is swollen in the middle, and contracted at both the base and apex, as in the Purple Heath (fig 309), and Bilberry (*Vaccinium Myrtillus*)

B. *Irregular Gamopetalous Corollas* — Of these we shall describe the following —

1. *Labiate*, *bilabiate*, or *lipped* — When the parts of a corolla are so united that the limb is divided into two portions

which are placed superiorly and inferiorly, the upper portion overhanging the lower, and each portion so arranged as not to close the orifice of the tube thus resembling in some degree the lips and open mouth of an animal (*figs* 310-313), the corolla is termed, *labrate*, *bilabiate*, or *lipped*. The upper lip is composed of two petals, which are either completely united, as in the White Dead-nettle (*fig* 310), or more or less divided, as in the Rosemary (*fig.* 312) and Germander (*Teucrium*) (*fig* 311), and the lower lip of three petals, which are also either entire as in the Rosemary (*fig* 312), or bifid as in some species of *Lamium*, or trifid as in *Galeobdolon* (*fig* 313). When a labiate corolla has its upper lip much arched, as in the White Dead-nettle (*fig* 310), it is frequently termed *urgent* or *gaping*. The labiate corolla gives the name to the natural order Labiatae, in the

FIG 312

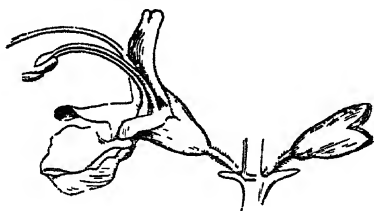


FIG 313



Fig 312 Flower of the Rosemary (*Rosmarinus*) with upper lip divided —
Fig 313 Front view of the labiate corolla of *Galeobdolon*, with trifid lower lip

plants belonging to which it is of almost universal occurrence. It is found also in certain plants belonging to some other orders.

2 *Personate* or *Mashed* —This form of corolla resembles the labiate in being divided into two lips, but it is distinguished by the lower lip being approximated to the upper, so as to close the orifice of the tube or throat. The closing of the throat is caused by a projection of the lower lip called the *palate* (*fig* 314). Examples occur in the Snapdragon (*fig* 314), and the Toadflax (*fig* 315). In the species of *Calceolaria* the two lips become hollowed out in the form of a slipper, hence such a corolla, which is but a slight modification of the personate, is sometimes termed *calceolate*.

3 *Ligulate* or *Strap-shaped* —If what would otherwise be a

tubular corolla is partly split open on one side, so as to become flattened like a strap above (figs 316 and 317), it is called *ligulate* or *strap shaped*. This kind of corolla frequently occurs in the

FIG. 314

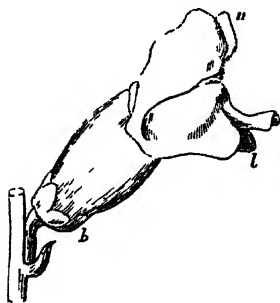


FIG. 315



FIG. 316

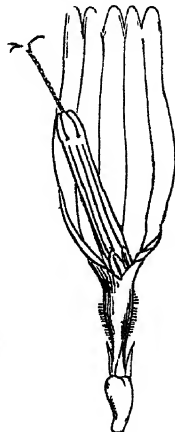


Fig. 314 Per-ovate corolla of the Snapdragon (*Antirrhinum*) l Lower lip u Upper lip b Gibbous base — Fig. 315 Per-ovate corolla of the Toad-flax (*Linaria*), spurred at its base — Fig. 316 Ligulate corolla of a Composite flower, with five teeth at its apex

FIG. 317

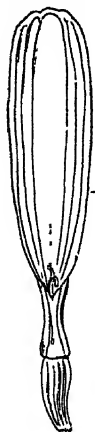


FIG. 318

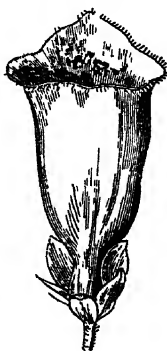


FIG. 319

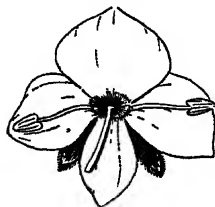


Fig. 317 Ligulate corolla of the Ox-eye (*Chrysanthemum*) — Fig. 318 Digitaliform or glove shaped corolla of the Foxglove (*Digitalis purpurea*) — Fig. 319 Irregular rotate corolla of Spurge (*Euphorbia*)

florets of the Compositæ, either in the whole of those constituting the capitulum, as in the Dandelion (*Taraxacum*), or only in some of them, as in the outer florets of the Ox-eye (fig 317)

The apex of a ligulate corolla has frequently five teeth, indicating the number of its component petals (*fig* 316)

Besides the above-described forms of regular and irregular gamopetalous corollas, others also occur, some of which are but slight modifications of these, and arise from irregularities that are produced in certain parts in the progress of their development. Thus in the Foxglove (*fig* 318), the general appearance of the corolla is somewhat bell-shaped, but it is longer than this form, and slightly irregular, and as it has been supposed to resemble the finger of a glove, it has received the name of *digitiform* or *glove-shaped*. In the Speedwell (*fig*. 319), the corolla is nearly rotate, but the divisions are of unequal size and shape, hence it may be described as *irregularly rotate*, and

FIG 320

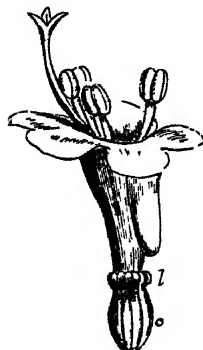


FIG 321



Fig 320 Flower of a species of Valerian (*Valeriana*). Calyx, adherent to the ovary. Lobe of the calyx rolled inwards. The corolla has a projection towards its base, and is hence said to be gibbous.
Fig 321 Flower of the Red Valerian (*Centranthus*). The corolla is irregularly salver-shaped and curved at its base.

in the Red Valerian the corolla is *irregularly salver shaped* (*fig* 321).

APPENDAGES OF THE COROLLA.—The corolla, like the calyx, whether polypetalous or gamopetalous, is subject to various irregularities, arising from the expansion or growing outwards

one or more of the petals, or the tube, into processes or appendages of different kinds. Thus in the Snapdragon (*fig*. 314, *b*) and Valerian (*fig* 320), the lower part of the tube of the corolla becomes dilated on one side, so as to form a little bag or sac, it is then termed *saccate* or *gibbous*, this term being used in the same sense as previously described (see page 149) when speaking of the calyx. At other times, one or more of the petals, or the tube, becomes prolonged downwards and forms a *spur*, in which case the petal or corolla is described

as *spurred* or *calcarate*. Examples of spurred petals or corollas may be seen in the Heartsease, Columbine (*fig. 323*), Toadflax (*fig. 315*), and Red Valerian (*fig. 321*). Only one spur may

FIG 322

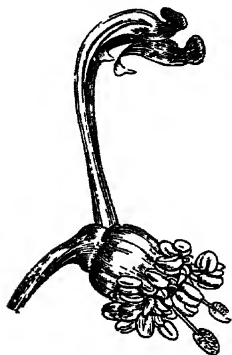


FIG 323

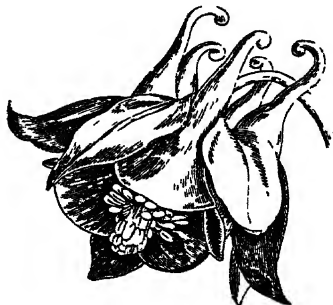


Fig. 322 A portion of the flower of the Monkshood (*Aconitum*), with numerous stamens below, and two stalked somewhat horn-shaped petals above — *Fig. 323* Flower of the Columbine (*Aquilegia vulgaris*) with each of its petals spurred

be present, as in the Heartsease, or each of the petals may be spurred, as in the Columbine (*fig. 323*). The Yellow Toadflax, which usually produces only one spur, in rare instances is found

FIG 324



FIG 325.



FIG 326.

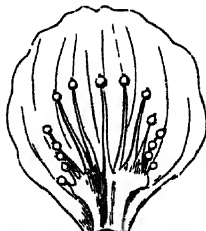


Fig. 324 Petal of a Crowfoot with a nectariferous scale at its base — *Fig. 325* One of the petals of Mignonette (*Reseda*) — *Fig. 326* A petal of the Grass of Parnassus (*Parnassia palustris*) bearing a fringed scale at its base

with five. Such a modification was termed by Linnæus *Peloria*, a name which is now frequently applied by botanists to all flowers which thus pass from irregularity to regularity. In the Monkshood (*fig. 322*), the two petals which are situated

under the helmet-formed sepals already noticed (*fig* 283) are each shaped somewhat like an irregularly curved horn placed on a long channelled stalk

The corolla is usually composed of but one whorl of petals, and it is then termed *simple*, but in some flowers there are two or more whorls, in which case it is called *multiple*. When the corolla is composed of but one whorl, its parts in a regular arrangement alternate with the sepals, although cases sometimes occur in which they are opposite to them. The causes of these different arrangements have already been explained, under the head of the Symmetry of the Flower

FIG 327

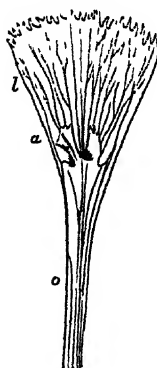


FIG 328



Fig 327 A petal of a species of *Lychnis* *o* Claw *l* Lamb *a* Scaly appendages — *Fig* 328 Flower of the Daffodil (*Narcissus Pseudo narcissus*)
The cup or bell-shaped process towards the centre is termed a corona

On the inner surface of the petals of many flowers we may frequently observe appendages of different kinds in the form of scales or hair-like processes of various natures. These are commonly situated at the junction of the claw and limb (*fig* 327, *a*); or at the base of the petals (*figs* 324 and 326). Such appendages may be well seen in the Mignonette (*fig* 325), Crowfoot (*fig* 324), *Lychnis* (*fig* 327, *a*), and Grass of Parnassus (*fig* 326). Similar scales may be also frequently noticed in gamopetalous corollas near the throat, as in many Boraginaceous plants, for instance, the Comfrey, Borage, Forget-me-not (*fig* 308, *r*), and also in the Dodder, and many other plants. Sometimes these scales become more or less united and form a cup-shaped

process, as in the perianth of the Daffodil (*fig 328*) and other species of *Narcissus*; to this the term *corona* is commonly applied. The beautiful fringes on the corolla of the Passion-flower are of a similar nature.

The origin of these scales is by no means clearly ascertained, by some botanists they have been supposed to be derived from the petals, by others to be abortive stamens, but they are now more commonly regarded as ligules (see page 56) developed on the petals. Formerly many of these appendages were described under the name of *nectaries*, although but few of them possess the power of secreting the honey-like matter or nectar from which they derived their names; they were therefore improperly so termed.

DURATION OF THE COROLLA.—The duration of the corolla varies like that of the calyx, but it is almost always more fugitive than the latter. It is *caducous* if it falls as the flower opens, as in the Grape-vine, commonly it is *deciduous*, or falls off soon after the opening of the flower. In rare instances it is *persistent*, in which case it usually becomes dry and shrivelled, as in Heaths and the species of *Campanula* (*fig 235*), when it is said to be *marcescent*.

FIG 329

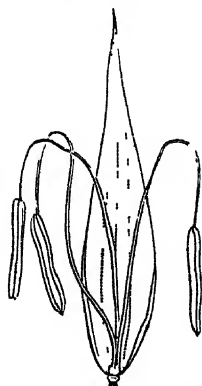


FIG 329 Unisexual staminate flower of a species of *Cereus*. The filaments are long and capillary, and the anthers pendulous and innate.

(3) THE SPOROPHYLLS

The two whorls of sporophylls have been already termed the Androecium and the Gynoecium or Pistil respectively.

Flowers which possess both these whorls are called *hermaphrodite* or *bisexual* (*fig 344*), when only one is present, they are *unisexual* or *diclinous*, as in the species of *Carex* (*fig 329*), and *Salix* (*figs 212 and 213*). The flower is also then further described as *staminate* or *staminiferous* (*figs 212 and 329*), when it contains only a stamen or stamens, and *carpellary*, *pistillate*, or *pistilliferous*, when it has only a carpel or carpels (*fig. 213*). When a flower possesses neither androecium nor gynoecium, as is sometimes the case with the outer florets of the capitula of the Compositæ, it is said to be *neuter*. When the flowers are unisexual, both staminate and pistillate flowers may be borne upon the same plant, as in the Hazel, Oak, Cuckoo-pint

(fig 201), and the species of *Carex*, in which case the plant is stated to be *monœcious*; or upon different plants of the same species, as in the Willows (figs. 212 and 213), when the plant is said to be *diœcious*. In some cases, as in many Palms and in the Pellitory (*Parietaria*), staminate, pistillate, and hermaphrodite flowers are situated upon the same individual, and then the plant is called *polygamous*.

c. The Andrœcium

The andrœcium is the whol or whorls of sporophylls which, in a *complete flower*, is situated between the corolla (fig 346) or perianth on the outside, and the gyncœium on the inside, or it is placed between the calyx and gyncœium when the corolla is absent (fig 251), as in monochlamydeous flowers, or in achlamydeous flowers, it is either outside the gyncœium (fig 252) when those flowers are bisexual, or it stands alone (fig 253) when the flowers are unisexual and staminate. These leaves or sporophylls, which bear the microsporangia, are termed *stamens*.

FIG 330



Fig 330 Stamen of the Cuckoo-pint (*Arum maculatum*), consisting simply of an anther which is sessile upon the thalamus

Each stamen consists generally of a thread-like portion or stalk, called the *filament* (fig 334, *f*), and of a little bag or case, *a*, called the *anther*, which contains the microspores, or pollen. It not unfrequently happens that flowers contain sterile filaments, that is, filaments without anthers, in which case these structures are termed *staminodes*. These commonly preserve a flattened appearance, as in the flowers of the species of *Canna*. When, as is rarely the case, the filament is absent, as in the Cuckoo-pint (fig 330), the anther is described as *sessile*.

Though the microsporangia are usually borne upon sporophylls (stamens), this is not without exception. In some aquatic plants, such as the Najasceæ, and in some tropical trees, they occur upon certain portions of the axis. When this is the case, the term stamen is still applied to them.

Before discussing the andrœcium as a whole it will be well to examine the peculiarities of the stamens of which it is composed. Each consists, as we have seen, of a filament and an anther.

1. THE FILAMENT.—The filament varies in form, length, colour, and other particulars, a few of the more important modifications of which will be now alluded to.

Form.—As its name implies, the filament is usually found in the form of a little thread-like or cylindrical prolongation which generally tapers in an almost imperceptible manner from the base to the apex, when it is described as *filiform*, as in the Rose, or if it is very slender, as in most Sedges and Grasses, it is *capillary* (figs 329 and 331). In the latter case the filament, instead of supporting the anther in the erect position as it usually does, becomes curved, and the anther is then pendulous (figs. 329 and 331). At other times the filament becomes enlarged, or it is flattened in various ways. Thus in some cases it is dilated gradually from below upwards like a club, when it

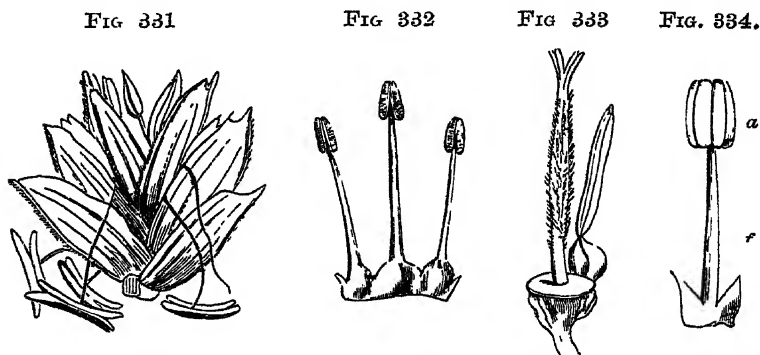


FIG 331 A locust of Wheat (*Triticum sativum*), consisting of several flowers, the stamens of which have very long capillary filaments, and versatile pendulous anthers. The anthers are notched or forked at each extremity, and thus resemble somewhat the letter *z* in form.—FIG 332 Three of the stamens of *Tamarix gallica*, with their filaments flattened at the base and united with each other.—FIG 333 Pistil of a species of *Campanula*, with a single stamen whose filament is flattened.—FIG 334 Dilated toothed filament of a species of *Allium*

is *clavate* or *club-shaped*, as in *Thalictrum*, or it is slightly enlarged at the base, and tapers upwards to a point like an awl, as in the Flowering Rush (*Butomus umbellatus*); in other cases it is flattened at the base, the rest of the filament assuming its ordinary rounded form, as in *Tamarix gallica* (fig 332), and species of *Campanula* (fig 333), or the whole of the filament is flattened, and then it frequently assumes the appearance of a petal, when it is described as *petaloid*, as in the Water-lily (figs. 272, *e*, and 346), and in *Canna* and allied plants

Sometimes, again, the filament is *toothed* as in *Allium* (fig. 334), or *forked* as in *Crambe* (fig. 335), or furnished with

various appendages as in the Borage (*fig* 336, *a*), in which case it is said to be *appendiculate*

Length, Colour, and Direction —The length of the filament varies much. Thus, in the Borage (*fig* 336, *f*) and plants generally of the order Boraginaceæ (*fig* 337), the filaments are very short, in the Primrose (*fig* 367), and commonly in the

FIG. 335

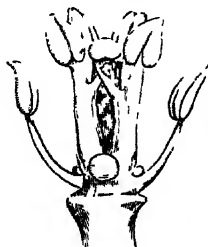


FIG. 336



FIG. 337



FIG. 338

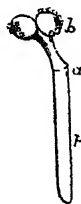


FIG. 339

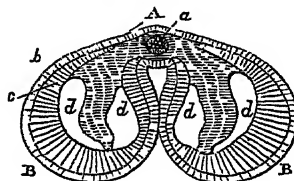


Fig 335 Gynoecium and androecium of *Crambe*. The longer filaments are forked — *Fig* 336 A stamen of the Borage (*Borago officinalis*). *f* Filament *a* Curved appendage to the filament *l* Anther — *Fig* 337 Corolla of *Myosotis* or Forget me not, laid open. There are five stamens with very short filaments attached to the corolla and included within its tube — *Fig* 338 Male flower of *Euphorbia*, consisting of a solitary stamen, *b*, without any floral envelopes surrounding it, hence it is said to be naked or achlamydeous. The anther is two-lobed, and the connective very small *a* Articulation, indicating the point of union of the true filament and peduncle *p* — *Fig* 339 Transverse section of a young anther of *Neoltia picta*. From Schleiden *A* Back of the anther to which the connective is attached *B, B* The two lobes of the anther *a* Vascular bundle of the connective *d, d, d, d* The four loculi or cells of the anther. Each lobe is seen to be divided into two loculi by a septum or partition

Primulaceæ, a similar condition also occurs. In the Fuchsia, Lily, Grasses (*fig* 331), and Sedges (*fig* 329), the filaments are usually very long

In *colour* the filaments are generally white, but at other times they assume vivid tints like the corolla or perianth; thus in the Spiderwort they are blue, in various species of *Ranunculus* and of *Oenothera* yellow, in some Poppies black, in Fuchsia red, &c

In *direction* the filaments, and consequently the stamens, are either *erect*, *incurred*, *recurved*, *pendulous*, &c. these terms being used in their ordinary acceptation. When the filaments are all turned towards one side of the flower, as in the Horse-chestnut and Amaryllis, they are said to be *declinate*. Generally speaking, their direction is nearly the same from one end of the filament to the other, but in some cases the original direction is departed from in a remarkable manner, and the upper part of the filament forms an angle more or less obtuse with the lower, in which case it is termed *geniculate*, as in *Mahernia*. A similar appearance sometimes arises from the presence of an articulation at the point where the angle is produced, as in *Euphorbia* (fig 338, a). In such a case, or whenever an articulation exists on the apparent filament, this is not to be considered as a true filament, but to consist in reality of a flower-stalk supporting a single stamen. The flower here, therefore, is reduced to a single stamen, all the parts except it being abortive. This is proved by the occasional production in some allied plants of one or more whorls of the floral envelopes at the point where the joint is situated. In the Pellitory (*Parietaria*), the filament assumes a spiral direction.

Duration.—The filament usually falls off from the thalamus soon after the flower opens, or is *deciduous*, but in rare cases, as in the species of *Campanula*, the filament is persistent, and remains attached to the ovary in a withered condition.

2 THE ANTHUR.—*Its Parts*.—The different parts of which the anther is composed may be best seen by making a transverse section as shown in fig 339. Thus here we observe two parallel lobes, B, B, separated by a portion, A, a called the *connective*, to which the filament is attached. Each lobe is divided into two cavities, d, d, d, d, by a septum which passes from the connective to the walls of the anther. The cavities thus formed in the lobes of the anther contain the pollen-grains or microspores, and are called *pollen-sacs* or *microsporangia*. All anthers in an early stage of development possess *four loculi*, and this is considered the normal state. When a fully developed anther exhibits a similar structure, as in the Flowering Rush, it is *four-celled* or *quadricocular* (figs 340, b, and 361, d), or when, as is far more commonly the case, the partitions separating the two loculi of each anther-lobe become absorbed, it is *two-celled* or *bilocular* (fig. 360). In rare cases the anther is *unilocular*, or *one-celled*, as in the Mallow (fig 359), Milkwort (fig 341), and Lady's Mantle (fig. 342), this arises either from the abortion of one

lobe of the anther, and the absorption of the septum between the two cells of the lobe that is left, or by the destruction of the partition wall of the two lobes as well as of the septa between the

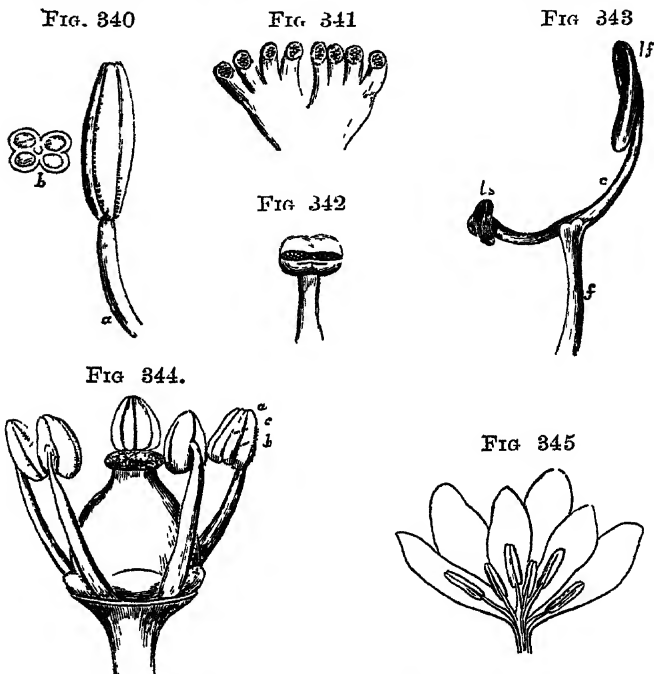


Fig. 340 Four-celled anther of the Flowering Rush (*Butomus umbellatus*) *a* Filament bearing an entire anther *b* Section of the anther with its four cells.—Fig. 341 Androecium of Milkwort (*Polygala*), with eight one-celled anthers dehiscing at their apex.—Fig. 342 One of the stamens of the Lady's Mantle (*Alchemilla*). The anther is one celled, and dehiscence transversely.—Fig. 343 Stamen of the Sage (*Salvia*) *f* Filament *c* Connective bearing at one end a cell, *lf*, containing pollen, when it is said to be fertile, and at the other end a cell, *ls*, without pollen, in which case it is sterile.—Fig. 344 The androecium and gynoecium of the Vine (*Vitis vinifera*) *a* Anther *c* Furrow in its face which is turned towards the pistil or gynoecium *b* Suture or line of dehiscence. The anther is introrse.—Fig. 345 The perianth cut open, showing the stamens, of the Meadow Saffron (*Colchicum autumnale*), with the faces of their anthers turned towards the floral envelopes, and hence termed extrorse.

cells of each lobe. In some plants, again, as in many species of *Salvia*, the connective becomes elongated into a kind of stalk each end of which bears an anther-lobe (fig. 343). When this occurs one lobe only, *lf*, contains pollen, the other, *ls*, is sterile

That surface of the anther to which the connective is attached is called the *back* (*fig* 339, *a*), and the opposite surface, *B. B.*, is the *face*. The latter always presents a more or less grooved appearance (*figs* 339 and 344, *c*), indicating the point of junction of the two lobes. Each lobe also commonly presents a more or less evident furrow (*fig* 344, *b*), indicating the point at which the mature anther will open to discharge the pollen, this furrow is termed the *suture*. By these furrows the face of the anther may be generally distinguished from the back, which is commonly smooth (*fig* 339, *a*), and has moreover the filament attached to it. The face is generally turned towards the gynoecium or centre of the flower, as in the Water-lily (*fig* 346), Vine (*fig* 344), and Tulip (*fig* 347), in which case the anther is called

FIG 346

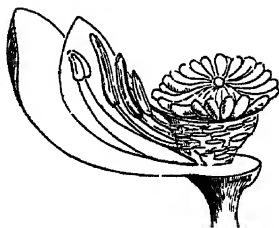


FIG 347

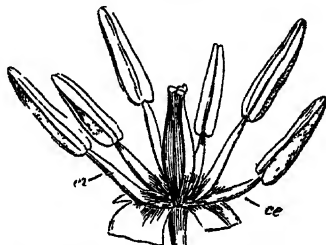


Fig 346 A portion of the flower of the White Water-lily (*Nymphaea alba*), showing the gynoecium invested by a large fleshy disk which is prolonged from the thalamus. Below the pistil are some stamens which have petaloid filaments and adnate introse anthers, two petals are shown, the others having been removed. — *Fig* 347 Gynoecium and androecium of the Tulip. The stamens *a* and *ce* have introse anthers, which dehisce longitudinally.

introse, but in some instances, as in the Iris, and Meadow Saffron (*fig* 345), the face is directed towards the petals or circumference of the flower, when the anther is said to be *extroise*.

Attachment of the Filament to the Anther—The mode in which the anther is attached to the filament varies in different plants, but is always constant in the same species, and frequently throughout entire natural orders, and hence the characters afforded by such differences are important in practical Botany. There are three modes of attachment which are distinguished by special names. Thus 1st, the anther is said to be *adnate* or *dorsifixed* when its back is attached throughout its whole length to the filament, or to its continuation called the connective, as in the Magnolia (*fig* 350), and Water-lily (*fig* 346); 2nd, it is *innate* or *basifixed* when the filament is

only attached to its base, and firmly adherent, as in the species of *Carex* (fig. 329); and 31d, it is *versatile*, when the filament is only attached by a point to about the middle of the back of the connective, so that the anther swings upon it, as in Grasses generally (fig. 331), and in the Lilv, Evening Primrose, and Meadow Saffron

Connective—The relations of the anther to the filament, as well as of its lobes to each other, are much influenced by the appearance and size of the connective. Thus in all adnate anthers the connective is large, and the lobes generally more or less parallel to each other throughout their whole length (fig. 350)

FIG 348

FIG 349

FIG 350

FIG 351

FIG 352

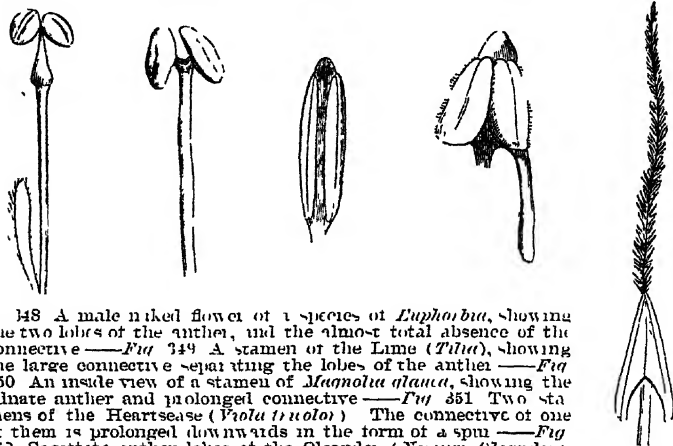


FIG 348 A male naked flower of a species of *Euphorbia*, showing the two lobes of the anther, and the almost total absence of the connective—FIG 349 A stamen of the Lime (*Tilia*), showing the large connective separating the lobes of the anther—FIG 350 An inside view of a stamen of *Magnolia glauca*, showing the adnate anther and prolonged connective—FIG 351 Two stamens of the Heartsease (*Viola tricolor*). The connective of one of them is prolonged downwards in the form of a spur—FIG 352 Sagittate anther lobes of the Oleander (*Nerium Oleander*), and the prolonged feathery connective

In other cases the connective is very small, or altogether wanting, as in species of *Euphorbia* (fig. 348), so that the lobes of the anther are then immediately in contact at their base. In the Lime the connective completely separates the two lobes of the anther (fig. 349). In the Sage (fig. 343) and other species of *Salvia*, the connective forms a long stalk-like body placed horizontally on the top of the filament; one end of it bears an anther lobe, *lf*, containing pollen, the other merely a petaloid plate or abortive anther lobe, *ls*, it is then said to be *distractile*. Sometimes the connective is prolonged beyond the lobes of the anther, either as a little rounded or tapering ex-

pansion, as in the Magnolia (fig 350), or as a long feathery process, as in the Oleander (fig 352), or in various other ways. At other times, again, it is prolonged downwards and backwards as a kind of spur, as in the Heartsease (fig 351). Anthers with such appendages are termed *appendiculate*.

Forms of the Anther Lobes and of the Anther --The lobes of the anther assume a variety of forms. Thus in *Mercurialis annua* (fig. 354), they are somewhat rounded, very frequently they are more or less oval, as in the Almond and Lime (fig 349), in *Acalypha* they are linear (fig 353), in the Gourd tube (fig 355) linear and sinuous; in *Solanum* (fig 363) four-sided, and at other times pointed, or prolonged in various ways. These and other forms which they assume,

FIG 353



FIG 354



FIG 355



FIG 353 A stamen of a species of *Acalypha* in a young state. *f* Filament. *l* Linear anther lobes. — FIG 354 A stamen of *Mercurialis annua*. *c* Filament. *c* Connective. *l, l* Rounded anther lobes, deluscing longitudinally. — FIG 355 The linear and sinuous anther lobes, *l*, attached to the filament, *f*, of the common Ivy (*Brunna dioica*). The above figures are from Jussieu.

combined with those of the connective, determine that of the anther, which may be *oval*, *oblong*, &c., or *bifurcate* or *forked* as in *Vaccinium uliginosum* (fig 357), or *quadrifurcate* (fig 358) as in *Gaultheria procumbens*, or *sagittate* (fig 352) as in the Oleander, or *cordate-sagittate* as in the common Wall-flower. In the Grasses the anthers are forked at each extremity (fig. 331), so as to resemble somewhat the letter *x* in form.

The lobes of the anther also, like the connective, frequently present appendages of various kinds. Thus in *Erica cinerea* they have a flattened leafy body at their base (fig 356, *a*), at other times the surface of the anther presents projections in the form of pointed bodies (fig 357, *a*), as in *Vaccinium uliginosum*, or warts, &c. Such anthers, like those which present appendages from the connective, are termed *appendiculate*.

Colour of the Anther —The anther when young is of a greenish hue, but when fully matured it is generally yellow. There are, however, many exceptions to this thus it is dark purple or black in many Poppies, orange in *Eschscholtzia*, purple in the Tulip, red in the Peach, &c.

Dehiscence of the Anther —When the anthers are perfectly ripe their pollen-sacs split open and discharge their contained pollen (*fig* 359), this act is called the *dehiscence* of the anther. Dehiscence commonly takes place in the line of the sutures (*fig* 344, *b*), and at the period when the flower is fully expanded, at other times, however, the anthers burst before the flower opens. All the anthers may open at the same period,

FIG. 356



FIG. 357



FIG. 358



Fig 356 Appendiculate anther attached to filament, *f*, of the Fine leaved Heath (*Erica cinerea*) *a* Appendage *l* Lobes *s* Lateral short slit where dehiscence takes place — *Fig* 357 Bifurcate anther of *Vaccinium uliginosum* attached to filament, *f* *l* Anther lobes *a* Appendage *p* Points of the anther lobes where dehiscence takes place — *Fig* 358 Quadrifurcate anther of *Gaultheria procumbens*, attached to filament, *f* *l* Anther lobes The above figures are from Jussieu

or in succession, and in the latter case the dehiscence may either commence with the outer stamens, as is usually the case, or rarely with the inner

The dehiscence of the anther may take place in four different ways, which are respectively called 1 *Longitudinal*, 2 *Transverse*; 3. *Porous*, 4 *Valvular*.

1 *Longitudinal or Sutural*.—This, the usual mode of dehiscence, consists in the opening of each anther-lobe from the base to the apex in a longitudinal direction along the line of suture, as in the Vine (*fig* 344, *c*) and Tulip (*fig* 347).

2. *Transverse* —This kind of dehiscence mostly occurs in unilocular anthers, as in those of *Alchemilla* (*fig*. 342), *Lemna*,

and *Lavandula*. It consists in the splitting open of the anther transversely or in a horizontal direction, that is, from the connective to the side. It sometimes happens that by the enlargement of the connective the loculus of a one-celled anther is placed horizontally instead of vertically, in which case the dehiscence when it takes place in the line of the suture would be apparently transverse, although really longitudinal. An example of this kind of dehiscence is afforded by the Mallow (*fig 359*), and other plants belonging to the natural order Malvaceæ. In practical Botany such anthers, like the former, are said to dehisce transversely.

3 *Porous or Apical*.—This is a mere modification of longi-

FIG 359



FIG 360



FIG 361.

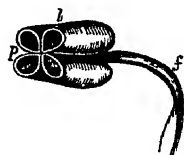


FIG. 362



FIG 363.



Fig 359 Stamen of the Mallow (*Malva*), the anther of which has an apparently transverse dehiscence.—*Fig 360* Two-celled anther of *Porandria rotundifolia* suspended from the filament, *f*. 2 Loculi, each opening by a pore, *p*.—*Fig 361* Quadrilocular anther of *Poranthera*, attached to filament, *f*. 4 Loculi, each opening by a pore, *p*.—*Fig 362* Anther of *Tetratheca juncea*, opening by a single pore at the apex. These figures are from Jussieu.—*Fig 363* Anther lobes of a species of *Solanum*, each opening by a pore at the apex.

tudinal dehiscence. It is formed by the splitting down of the anther lobes being arrested at an early period so as only to produce pores or short slits. In such anthers there is commonly no trace of the sutures to be seen externally. The pores or slits may be either situated at the apex, as in the species of *Solanum* (*fig 363*) and Milkwort (*fig 341*), or laterally, as in the Heaths (*fig. 356, r*). These may be either two pores, as is usually the case (*fig. 360, p*), or four as in *Poranthera* (*fig 361, p*), or many as in the Mistletoe, or only one as in *Tetratheca juncea* (*fig. 362*).

4 *Valvular*.—This term is applied when the whole or portions of the face of the anther open like trap-doors, which are attached at the top and turn back as if on a hinge. In the Barberi

(fig. 364) there are two such valves, in plants belonging to the Laurel family (fig. 365) there are two or four, according as the anthers have two or four loculi.

We may now consider the androecium as a whole from the point of view of the relations of the stamens to each other, and to the other whorls of the flower, noting the following points — 1. Number, 2 Insertion or Position, 3. Union or Cohesion, 4 Relative Length.

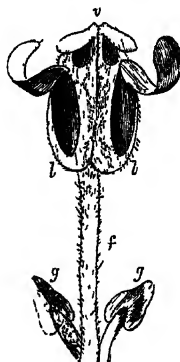
1. *Number*.—The number of the stamens is subject to great variation, and several terms are in common use to indicate such modifications. In the first place, certain names are applied to define the number of the stamens when compared in this respect with the component parts of the floral envelopes. Thus

FIG 364



Fig 364 Anther of Barberry (*Berberis vulgaris*), opening by two valves.
—Fig 365 Stamen of a species of *Tanais*, Frument, with two glands, *g, g*, at its base. *l, l*, Loculi, of which there are four. *v*, Valve.

FIG 365



when the stamens are equal in number to the sepals and petals, the flower is said to be *isostemonous*, as in the Primrose, and if they are unequal, as in the Valerians (figs 320 and 321), the flower is *anisostemonous*. Or, when greater accuracy is required in the latter case, we say *diplostemonous*, if the stamens are double the number, as in the Stonecrop, *meiostemonous*, if fewer in number, as in the Lilac, and *polystemonous*, if more than double, as in the Rose.

Secondly, the flower receives different names according to the actual number of free stamens it contains, without reference to the number of parts in the outer whorls. This number is indicated by the Greek numerals prefixed to the termination *-androus*, thus, a flower having one stamen is *monandrous*, two *diandrous*, three *triandrous*, four *tetrandrous*, and so on.

2 *Insertion or Position or Adhesion* — When the stamens are free from the calyx and pistil, and arise from the thalamus below the latter organ, as in the Barberry (*fig. 366*) and Crowfoot (*fig. 366*), they are said to be *hypogynous*, which signifies under the female or pistil, this is the normal position of the stamens. When the stamens are attached to the corolla, as in the Primrose (*fig. 367*), they are *epipetalous*. When the stamens apparently adhere to the calyx more or less, so that their position becomes somewhat lateral to the pistil instead of below it, as in the Cherry (*fig. 368*), they as well as the corolla are said to be *perigynous*. When the calyx is adherent to the ovary so that it appears to rise from its apex, the intermediate stamens and petals or corolla

FIG. 366



FIG. 367

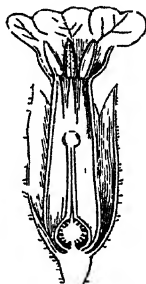


FIG. 368

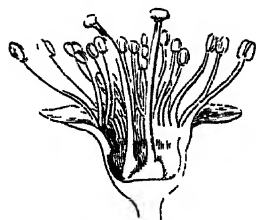


Fig. 366 Apocarpous pistil of the Crowfoot (*Ranunculus*), with two stamens arising from the thalamus below it, or hypogynous — *Fig. 367* Vertical section of a flower of the Primrose (*Primula*), showing epipetalous stamens. The pistil in the centre has an ovary with a free central placenta, one style, and a capitate stigma — *Fig. 368* Vertical section of the flower of the Cherry, showing the perigynous stamens surrounding the pistil.

are also necessarily placed on the summit, and are said to be *epigynous*, as in the species of *Campanula* (*fig. 369*), and Ivy. It sometimes happens that the stamens not only adhere to the ovary or lower part of the pistil, as in the epigynous form of insertion, but the upper part of the stamen or stamens and pistil become completely united also, and thus form a column in the centre of the flower, as in the Orchis (*fig. 370*), and Birthwort (*fig. 371*); this column is then termed the *gynostemium*, and the flowers are said to be *gynandrous*.

3 *Union or Cohesion* — When the stamens are perfectly free and separate from each other, as in the Vine (*fig. 344*), they are said to be *free* or *distinct*, when united, as in the Mallow (*fig. 373*), they are *coherent* or *connate*.

When the stamens cohere, the union may take place either by their anthers, or by their filaments, or by both anthers and

FIG 369



FIG 370.



FIG 371.



FIG 369 Vertical section of the flower of a species of *Campanula*, with epigynous stamens — FIG 370 Flower of *Oenothera biennis*. The column in the centre is formed by the union of the stamens and style — FIG 371 The pistil and stamens of Birthwort (*Aristolochia*). The ovary is seen below, and the stamens above united into a column with the style

filaments. When the anthers unite, the stamens are termed *syngenesious* or *synantherous* (fig 372). This union occurs in all the *Compositæ*, the *Lobelia*, and in some other plants.

FIG 372



FIG 373



FIG. 374.

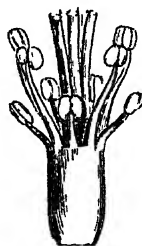


FIG 375



FIG 372 Syngenesious anthers of a species of Thistle (*Cirsium*) — FIG 373 Monadelphous stamens of a species of Mallow (*Malva*) — FIG 374 Monadelphous stamens of Wood Sorrel (*Oxalis*), forming a tube round the pistil FIG 375 Male flower of *Jatropha Curcas*. c Calyx p Corolla e Stamens united by their filaments into a tube, a, which occupies the centre of the flower, as there is no pistil

When the anthers thus unite the filaments are commonly, though not always, distinct. When union occurs between the

stamens, however, it is more common to see the filaments united, and the anthers free. This union by the filaments may take place in one or more bundles, the number being indicated by a Greek numeral prefixed to the termination *-adelphous*, which signifies *brotherhood*. Thus, when all the filaments unite together and form one bundle, as in the Mallow (*fig* 373), and Wood Sorrel (*fig* 374), the stamens are said to be *monadelphous*. When such a union takes place in a complete flower, the coherent filaments necessarily form a tube or ring round the pistil placed in their centre, as in the Wood Sorrel (*fig* 374), when the pistil is absent, and the flower therefore incomplete, the united filaments form a more or less central column, as in *Jatropha Curcas* (*fig* 375, *a*). When the filaments unite so as

FIG 377



FIG 376

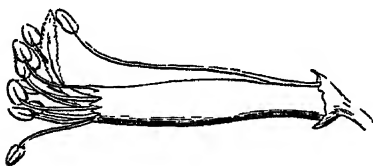


Fig 376 Diadelphous stamens of the Sweet Pea (*Lathyrus odoratus*), surrounding the simple pistil. There are ten stamens, nine of which are united and one free.—*Fig* 377 Flower of the Orange divested of its corolla, to show the polyadelphous stamens.

to form two bundles, the stamens are termed *diadelphous*, as in the Pea (*fig*. 376), Milkwort (*fig* 341), and Fumitory, in which case the number of filaments in each bundle may be equal as in the Milkwort (*fig* 341) and Fumitory, or unequal as in the Sweet Pea (*fig*. 376), where there are ten stamens, the filaments of nine of them being united to form one bundle, while the other filament remains free. When the stamens are united by their filaments into three bundles, they are *triadelphous*, as in most species of St John's Wort (*fig* 378), and when in more than three, *polyadelphous*, as in the Orange (*fig*. 377). The term polyadelphous is applied by many botanists, in all cases, where there are more than two bundles of stamens. it was used in this latter sense by Linnaeus.

The union of the filaments in the above cases may either

regular manner; thus, when the flowers are polystemonous, the stamens nearest the centre may be longer than those at the circumference, as in *Luhea paniculata* (fig 381), or the reverse may be the case, as in many of the Rosaceæ. In the case of diplostemonous flowers, as with the Willow Herb (*Epilobium*), the stamens alternating with the petals are almost always longer than those opposite to them. When the stamens are of unequal length in different flowers of the same species, as in the Primrose, they are said to be *dimorphic*, and will be afterwards alluded to in speaking of fertilisation.

When there is a definite relation existing between the long

FIG 381



FIG 382



FIG 383

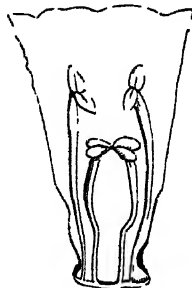


Fig 381 One of the bundles of stamens of *Luhea paniculata*, the inner stamens on the right are longer than the others, and are provided with anthers, the shorter stamens are generally sterile.—Fig 382 Tetradynamous stamens of the Wallflower (*Cheiranthus Cheiri*).—Fig 383 Didynamous stamens of the Foxglove (*Digitalis purpurea*).

and short stamens with respect to number, certain names are applied to indicate such forms of regularity. Thus in the Wallflower (fig. 382), and Cruciferous plants generally, there are six stamens to the flower, of which four are long and arranged in pairs opposite to each other, and alternating with two solitary shorter ones, to such an arrangement we apply the term *tetradynamous*. When there are but four stamens, of which two are long and two short, as in Labiate plants generally (figs. 311 and 313), and in the Foxglove (fig 383), and most other Scrophulariaceous plants, they are said to be *didynamous*.

3 THE POLLEN.—The pollen consists of microscopic cells,
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which correspond to the *microspores* of the higher Cryptogams. They possess two coats, known as the *extine* and the *intine*. In rare cases the outer coat appears to consist of two, or even three, layers, while in *Zostera*, *Zannichellia*, and some other submerged aquatic plants, there is but one membrane, which is of a similar nature to the intine.

FIG 384



FIG 385

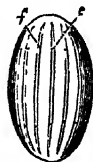


FIG 386



FIG 387.



FIG 384 Pollen of Hollyhock (*Althaea rosea*) — FIG 385 Elliptical pollen of Milkwort (*Polygala*) — *e* Extine *f* Slit — FIG 386 The same pollen viewed from above — FIG 387 Pollen cell of *Dactylis glomerata* After Jussieu

The *intine* is the innermost layer, and appears to be of the same nature and appearance in all pollen-grains. It is usually smooth, very delicate, and transparent, and is composed of pure cellulose.

The *extine* is a hard thick resisting layer, and is liable

FIG 388



FIG 389

FIG 390



FIG 388 Pollen of the Passion-flower (*Passiflora*), before bursting *o, o, o* Lad like processes — FIG 389 Pollen of the Gourd, at the period of bursting *o, o* Lad like processes, of the extine protruded by the projections, *t, t* of the intine. From Jussieu — FIG 390 Trigonal pollen of the Evening Primrose (*Oenothera biennis*)

to great variation; thus it is sometimes smooth, at others marked with little granular processes, or spiny protuberances (fig. 384), or reticulations (fig 388). The nature of these markings is always the same for the pollen of any particular species or variety of plant, but varies much in that of different plants. The extine is often covered by a viscid or oily secretion.

The colour of pollen-grains also resides in the extine. In by far the majority of cases the pollen-grains are yellow, but various other colours are also occasionally found, thus they are red in species of *Verbascum*, blue in some species of *Epilobium*, black in the Tulip, rarely green, and occasionally of a whitish tint.

Besides the various markings just described as existing on the extine, we find also either *pores* (fig 387), or *slits* (figs 385, f, and 386, f), or both pores and slits, which vary in number and arrangement in different plants. In the greater number of Monocotyledons there is but one slit, while three is a common number in Dicotyledons. Sometimes there are six, rarely four, still more rarely two, and in some cases we find twelve or more slits. These slits are generally straight (fig 385, f), but in *Mimulus moschatus* they are curved, and other still more complex arrangements occasionally occur.

The pores, like the slits, also vary as to their number. Thus we commonly find one in Monocotyledons, as in the Grasses; and three in Dicotyledons. Sometimes, again, the pores are very numerous, in which case they are either irregularly distributed, or arranged in a more or less regular manner. The pores also may be either simple, or provided with little lid-like processes, as in the Passion-flower (fig 388, o, o, o), and Gourd (fig 389). These processes (fig 389, o o) are pushed off by corresponding projections of the intine, *t, t*, when the pollen germinates, hence such pollen-grains have been termed *operculate*. In the pollen-grains of the Spruce Fir, the extine is expanded on two sides to form two curious bladder-like protuberances (fig 391).

The pollen-grains are usually free in the loculi of the anther. Sometimes, though rarely, they adhere to a greater or less extent to each other. Thus we have groups of four in *Periploca græca*, eight in *Inga anomala*, or some higher multiple of four, as in many species of *Acacia*. In the Onagraceæ, the pollen-grains are loosely connected by long viscid filaments or threads, while in the Orchidaceæ the pollen-

FIG. 391

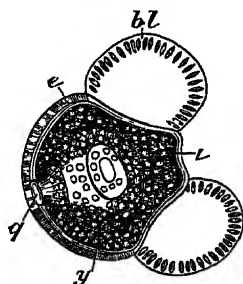


Fig. 391 Pollen of Spruce Fir (*Pinus erceſina*), consisting of a central cell and two lateral vesicular protuberances of the extine, *e* = Intine

grains of each pollen-sac cohere together and form pollen-masses, to which the name of *pollinia* has been given (*fig* 392, *p*). In the *Asclepiadaceæ* somewhat similar masses occur (*fig* 393, *p*, and *b*), but in the latter, the whole surface of each pollen-mass is invested by a special covering. By a careful examination of these pollinia we find that they are formed of compound masses agglutinated together, and when separated, each of these masses is found to consist of four pollen-grains. In the pollinia of the *Orchidaceæ* we also find other peculiarities, thus each is prolonged downwards in the form of a stalk called the *caudicle* (*fig*. 392, *c*), which adheres commonly at the period of dehiscence to one or two little glandular masses called *retinacula* (*figs* 394,

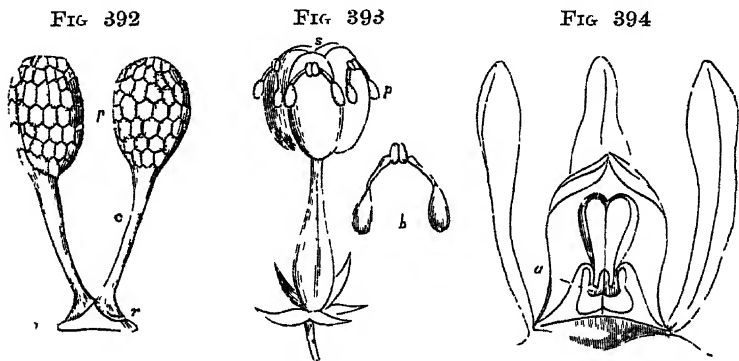


Fig 392 Pollinia, *p*, of a species of *Orchis* with their caudicles, *c*, adhering to the retinacula, *r*, *r*. — *Fig* 393 Pistil of a species of *Asclepias*, with the pollinia, *p*, adhering to the stigma, *s*. *b* Pollen-masses separated. — *Fig* 394 Upper part of the flower of an *Orchis* showing the pollinia adhering to the column by the retinacula, *a*.

a, and 392, *r*, *r*), which are placed on the upper surface of a little projection of the stigma or style, called the *rostellum*, which is situated at the base of the anther.

Pollen-grains are found of various shapes. The most common forms appear to be the spherical (*fig* 384), and oval (*fig* 385), in other cases they are polyhedral, as in *Chicory* (*Cichorium Intybus*) and *Sonchus palustris*, or triangular with the angles rounded and enlarged (trigonal), as in the Evening Primrose (*Enothera biennis*) and plants commonly of the order *Onagraceæ* (*fig* 390), or cubical as in *Basella alba*, or cylindrical as in *Tradescantia virginica*, while in *Zostera* they are threadlike or of the form of a lengthened tube or cylinder,

and other forms also occur. It should also be noticed that the form of the pollen is materially influenced according as it is dry or moist. Thus the pollen-grains of the Purple Loosestrife (*Lythrum Salicaria*) and some species of Passion-flower are oval when dry, but when placed in water they swell and become nearly globular. Again, when spherical pollen-grains are exposed to the air for some time they frequently assume a more or less oval form. In size, pollen-grains vary from about $\frac{1}{100}$ to $\frac{1}{1000}$ of an inch in diameter; their size, however, like their form, is liable to vary according as they are examined in a dry state or in water.

d. The Gynæcium or Pistil

The gynæcium, or pistil, occupies the centre of the flower, the andræcium and floral envelopes being arranged around it when they are present, the floral envelopes alone in the ordinary pistillate flower, or it stands alone when the flower is pistillate and naked. The gynæcium consists of one or more modified leaves called *carpels*, which are either distinct from each other, as in the Crowfoot (*fig 366*), or combined into one body, as in the Primrose (*fig 367*) and Tobacco (*fig 397*). When there is but one carpel as in the Pea (*fig 406*), Broom (*fig 396*), and Leguminous plants generally, the pistil is said to be *simple*, when there is more than one, whether distinct from each other, as in the Crowfoot (*fig 366*), or combined into one body, as in the Tobacco (*fig 397*), and Primrose (*fig 367*), it is described as *compound*.

Before proceeding to examine the gynæcium or pistil generally, it is necessary to describe the carpel, of one or more of which organs it is composed.

THE CARPEL—Each carpel consists, 1st, of a hollow inferior part resting on the thalamus, called the *ovary* (*fig.*

FIG 395



FIG 397.



FIG 396



FIG 395 Pistil of Primrose (*Primula vulgaris*), composed of several united carpels, and hence termed compound and syncarpous. There is but one style, which is surmounted by a capitate stigma.
FIG 396 Simple pistil of Broomrape. Ovary s. Style t. Stigma.—
FIG 397 Compound syncarpous pistil of Tobacco (*Nicotiana glauca*). t Thalamus. O Ovary. s Style. Capitate stigma.

398, o), containing in its interior one or more little somewhat roundish or oval bodies called *ovules*, *ov*, which are attached to a projection on the walls termed the *placenta*, *p*. 2nd, Of a *stigma*, either placed directly on the ovary, in which case it is said to be *sessile*, as in the Barberry (*fig* 398, *st*), or elevated on a stalk prolonged from the ovary, called the *style*, as in the Broom (*fig* 396, *s*). The terms ovary, style, and stigma are applied in precisely the same sense when speaking of a compound pistil in which the parts are completely united (*figs* 367, 395, 397), as in the case of a simple carpel. The monocarpellary ovary has two sutures, one of which corresponds to the union of the margins of the lamina of the carpellary leaf, and which is turned towards the axis of the plant, and another,

FIG 398

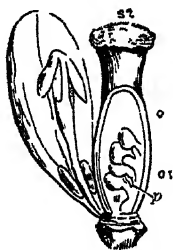


FIG 399

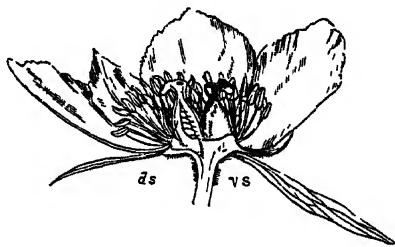


Fig 398 Vertical section of the ovary of the Barberry (*Berberis vulgaris*), on the outside of which are seen a stamen dehiscing by two valves, and a petal *o* Ovary *ov* Ovules attached to a projection called the placenta, *p* *st* Sessile stigma — *Fig* 399 Vertical section of the flower of the Pæony (*Pæonia*) *ds* Dorsal suture of the ovary *vs* Ventral suture

which corresponds to the midrib of the lamina, is directed towards the floral envelopes or to the circumference of the flower; the former is called the *ventral suture* (*fig* 399, *vs*), the latter the *dorsal*, *ds*.

THE PISTIL—Having now described the parts, nature, and structure of the carpel, we are in a position to examine in a comprehensive manner the gynoecium or pistil generally, which is made up of one or more of such carpels.

When the gynoecium is formed of but one carpel, as in the Broom (*fig* 396) and Pea (*fig* 406), it is, as we have already seen, called *simple*, and the terms gynoecium or pistil and carpel are then synonymous, when there is more than one

carpel, the pistil or gynoecium is termed *compound* (figs. 395 and 410). In a compound pistil, again, the carpels may be either separate from each other, as in the Stonecrop (fig. 279) and Pheasant's-eye (fig. 410), or united into one body, as in the Primrose (fig. 395), Carnation (fig. 405), and Tobacco (fig. 397) in the former case the pistil is said to be *apocarpous*, in the latter *syncarpous*. The number of carpels of which the pistil is composed is indicated by a Greek numeral prefixed to the termination *-gynous*; and the flower receives corre-

FIG. 400 FIG. 401 FIG. 402 FIG. 403 FIG. 404

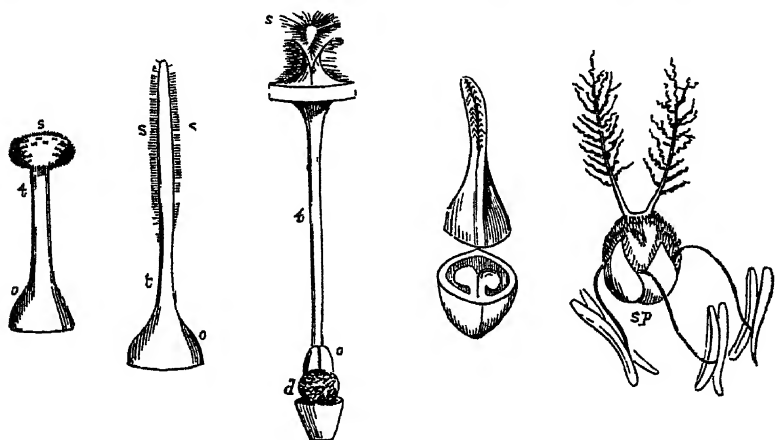


Fig. 400 A portion of the pistil of *Daphne Laureola*. *o* Summit of the ovary *t* Style terminated by a stigma, *s*—Fig. 401 A portion of the pistil of *Plantago variegata*. *o* Summit of the ovary *t* Style *s*, *s*, Bilateral stigma. The above figures are from Jussieu—Fig. 402 Pistil of the Periwinkle (*Vinca*) *o* Ovary *t* Style *s* Hairy stigma *d* Disk—Fig. 403 Ventral view of the pistil of *Isopyrum heterophyllum*, showing the double stigma—Fig. 404 Pistil of wheat (*Triticum sativum*) surrounded by three stamens and three squamules, *sp* Two feathery styles or stigmas arise from the top of the ovary

sponding names accordingly. Thus, a flower with one carpel is *monogynous*, with two *digynous*, with three *trigynous*, and so on.

1 *Apocarpous Pistil*—An apocarpous pistil may consist of one or more carpels, and they are variously arranged accordingly. Thus, when there are but two, they are always placed opposite to each other, when there are more than two, and the number coincides with the sepals or petals, they are opposite or alternate with them, it is rare, however, to find the carpels cor-

responding in number to the sepals or petals, they are generally fewer, or more numerous. The carpels may be either arranged in one whorl, as in the Stonecrop (*fig* 279), or in several whorls alternating with each other, or they may form a more or less spiral arrangement upon the thalamus. When an apocarpous pistil is thus found with several rows of carpels, the thalamus, instead of being a nearly flattened top, as is usually the case when the number of carpels is small, frequently assumes other forms, thus, in the *Magnolia* and Tulip-tree, it becomes cylindrical (*fig* 407), in the Raspberry (*fig* 409, *l*) and *Ranunculus* (*fig* 366), conical, in the Strawberry (*fig* 408), hemispherical, while in the Rose (*fig* 280, *1*), it becomes hollowed out like a cup, or urn, and has the carpels arranged upon its inner surface.

FIG. 405

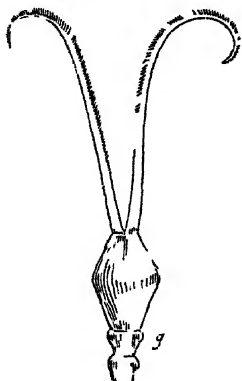


FIG. 406



Fig 405 Pistil of *Dianthus Caryophyllus* on a stalk, *g*, called the gynophore, below which is the peduncle. On the top of the ovary are two styles, the free of each of which is traversed by a continuous stigmatic surface —
Fig 406 Pistil of *Lathyrus odoratus* *o* Ovary *c* Persistent calyx. On the top of the ovary is the style and stigma, *stg*

These varying conditions of the thalamus necessarily lead to corresponding alterations in the mutual relation of the different whorls of carpels which compose an apocarpous pistil, and modify very materially the appearance of different flowers.

2 Syncarpous Pistil — We have already seen, in speaking of the floral envelopes and andræcium, that the different parts of which these whorls are respectively composed may be distinct from each other, or more or less united. From the position of the carpels with respect to one another, and from their nature, the latter are more frequently united than any other parts of the flower. This union may take place either partially, or entirely, and it may commence at the summit, or at the base of the carpels. Thus in the former case, as in *Xanthoxylon farneum*

(fig 411), the carpels are united by their stigmas only, in *Dic-tamnus Fraxinella* (fig 427) the upper parts of their styles are united, while in the Labiatae (fig 412, s), and most Boraginaceae

FIG. 407

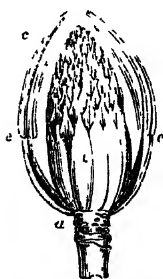


FIG. 408

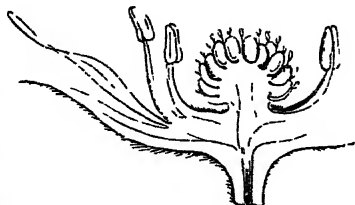


FIG. 409



Fig 407 Central part of the flower of the Tulip-tree (*Liriodendron tulipifera*) The thalamus, *a*, is more or less cylindrical *c, c* Carpels *e, e* Stamens Fig 408 Section of the flower of the Strawberry The thalamus is nearly hemispherical, and bears a number of separate carpels on its upper portion — Fig 409 Section of the ripe pistil of the Raspberry, showing the conical thalamus, *t*

(fig 413, *d*), the whole of the styles are united In all the above cases the ovaries are distinct, and in many Boraginaceae the stigmas also, but in all Labiatae the stigmas are distinct.

FIG. 410



FIG. 411



FIG. 412



FIG. 413

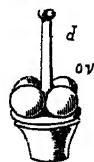


Fig 410 Apocarpous pistil of the Pheasant-eye (*Adonis*) — Fig 411 Pistil of *Xanthoxylum fraxineum* supported on a gynophore, *g*, The ovaries, *o* and styles are distinct, but the stigmas, *s*, are united — Fig 412 Pistil of Horehound (*Marrubium vulgare*) a Labiate plant Its ovaries, *ov*, are distinct, the styles, *s*, being united, and the stigmas distinct Fig 413 Pistil of *Myosotis*, a Boraginaceous plant *ov* Distinct ovaries *d* Styles united

It is far more common to find the carpels united by their lower portions or ovaries, and this union may also take place to

various extents. Thus, in the Rue (*fig 414, ov*), the union only takes place at the base of the ovaries, the upper parts remaining distinct, in which case the ovary is commonly described as lobed. In *Dianthus* (*fig 405*) the ovaries are completely united, the styles being distinct, while in the Primrose (*fig 367*), the ovaries, styles, and stigmas are all united. When two or more ovaries are thus completely united so as to form one body, the organ resulting from their union is called a *compound* or *polycarpellary ovary*.

Polycarpellary Ovary—The compound ovary formed as just stated may either have as many cavities separated by partitions as there are component carpels, or it may only have one

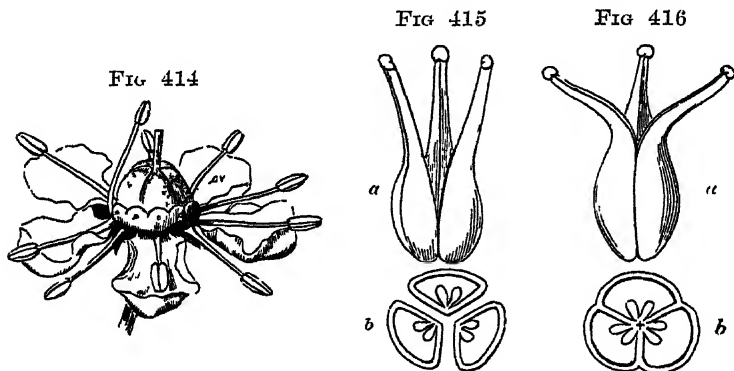


Fig 414 Flower of the Rue (*Ruta graveolens*), showing the ovaries, *ov*, united at their bases — *Fig 415 a* Diagram of three carpels placed side by side, but not united *b* A transverse section of the ovaries of the same — *Fig 416 a* Diagram of three carpels united by their ovaries, the styles and stigmas being free *b* A transverse section of the ovaries of the same

cavity. These differences have an important influence upon the attachment of the ovules, as will be afterwards seen when speaking of placentation. It is necessary for us, therefore, to explain at once the causes which lead to these differences. Thus if we have three carpels placed side by side (*fig 415, a*), each of these possesses a single cavity corresponding to its ovary, so that if we make a transverse section of the whole, *b*, we necessarily have three cavities, each of which is separated from those adjoining by two walls, one being formed by the side of its own ovary, and the other by that of the one next to it. But if these three carpels, instead of being distinct, are united by their

ovaries (fig 416, *a*), so as to form a single ovary, the latter must necessarily also have as many cavities as there are component carpels, *b*, and each cavity must be separated from those adjoining by a wall which is called a *dissepiment* or *partition*. Each dissepiment must be also composed of the united sides of the two adjoining ovaries, and is consequently double

In the normal arrangement of the parts of the ovary, it must necessarily happen that the styles (when they are distinct) must alternate with the dissepiments, for as the former are prolongations of the apices of the blades of the carpellary leaves,

FIG 417

FIG 418

FIG 419

FIG 420

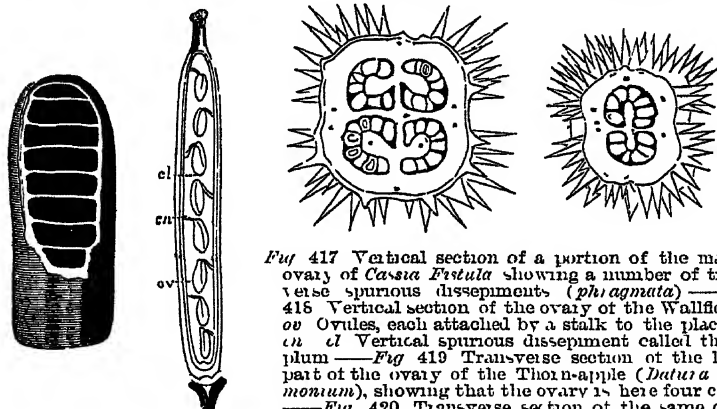


Fig 417 Vertical section of a portion of the mature ovary of *Cassia Fistula* showing a number of transverse spurious dissepiments (*phragmata*) — Fig 418 Vertical section of the ovary of the Wallflower, *ov* Ovules, each attached by a stalk to the placenta, *cl* Vertical spurious dissepiment called the replum — Fig 419 Transverse section of the lower part of the ovary of the Thorn-apple (*Datura Stramonium*), showing that the ovary is here four celled — Fig 420 Transverse section of the same ovary at its upper part, showing that it is here two celled

while the latter are formed by the union of their margins, the dissepiments must have the same relation to the styles as the sides of the blade of a leaf have to its apex, that is, they must be placed right and left of them, or alternate

The cavities of the compound ovary are called *cells* or *loculi*, and such an ovary as that just described would be therefore termed *three-celled* or *trilocular*, as it is formed of three united ovaries. All dissepiments which are not formed by the united walls of adjoining ovaries are termed *spurious* or *false*. It follows, therefore, that a single carpel can have no true dissepiment, and is hence, under ordinary and normal circumstances, *unilocular* or *one-celled*

From the preceding observations it must also follow that when ovaries which are placed side by side cohere, and form a compound ovary, the dissepiments must be vertical, and equal in number to the ovaries out of which that compound ovary is formed. When a compound ovary is composed, however, of several whorls of ovaries placed in succession one over the other, as in the Pomegranate, horizontal true dissepiments may be formed by the ovaries of one whorl uniting by their bases to the apices of those placed below them (*fig* 567).

We have just observed that all dissepiments are said to be spurious except those which are formed by the union of the walls of contiguous ovaries, and it occasionally happens that such spurious dissepiments are formed in the course of growth,

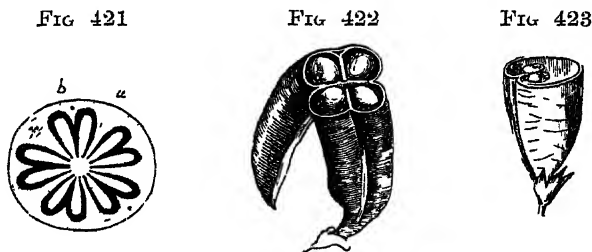


Fig 421 Transverse section of the ovary of the Flax (*Linum usitatissimum*), showing five complete and true dissepiments, *a*, and five incomplete spurious dissepiments, *b* — *Fig* 422 Transverse section of the mature ovary of *Astragalus*, showing spurious dissepiment proceeding from the dorsal suture — *Fig* 423 Transverse section of the mature ovary of *Phaca*

by which the ovary acquires an irregular character. These false dissepiments commonly arise from projections of the placentas inwards, or by corresponding growths from some other parts of the walls of the ovaries. Some of these are horizontal, and are called *phragmata*, as in the *Cassia Fistula* (*fig* 417), where the ovary, after fertilisation, is divided by a number of transverse dissepiments, which are projections from its walls. Others are vertical, as in Cruciferous plants, where the dissepiment, called a *replum* (*fig* 418, *cl*), is formed from the placentas. Also, in *Datura Stramonium*, where the ovary is formed of two carpels, and is hence normally two-celled, but, instead of thus being bilocular, it is four-celled below (*fig*. 419) from the formation of a spurious vertical dissepiment, but towards the apex it is two-celled (*fig*. 420), the dissepiment not

being complete throughout, and thus the true nature of the ovary is there indicated. In the Gourd tribe (*fig 547*), also, spurious dissepiments appear to be formed in the ovary in a vertical direction by projections from the placentas. In the Flax, again (*fig 421, b*), spurious incomplete vertical dissepiments are formed in the ovary by projections from the dorsal sutures. In the ovary of the *Astragalus* (*fig 422*), a spurious dissepiment is also formed by a folding inwards of the dorsal suture, while in *Oxytropis* and *Phaca* (*fig 423*), a spurious incomplete dissepiment is produced in the ovary of each by a folding inwards of the ventral suture. Various other examples of the formation of spurious dissepiments might be quoted, but the above will be sufficient for our purpose. It should be

FIG 424

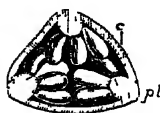


FIG 425



FIG 426.

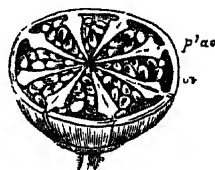


Fig 424 Transverse section of the one-celled ovary of Mignonette (*Reseda*). The lower flattened portion of ovary of one of the three carpels of which it is formed. *pl* One of the three parietal placentas. — *Fig 425* Transverse section of the one-celled ovary of an Orchis. The lower portion of ovary of one of the three carpels of which it is formed, slightly infolded. *pl* One of the three parietal placentas. — *Fig 426* Transverse section of the ovary of a species of Poppy or Ovules. *plae, plae* Placenta, which in the young ovary nearly meet in the centre, and thus the ovary becomes almost many-celled, but as the ovary progresses in development it is only one-celled.

noticed that in our description of spurious dissepiments we have not confined our attention to those of compound ovaries alone, but have also referred to those of simple ovaries, in which they may equally arise. Thus the spurious dissepiments of *Cassia Fistula*, *Astragalus*, *Phaca*, and *Oxytropis* are all examples of such formations in simple ovaries.

We have now to consider the formation of the compound ovary which presents but one cavity, instead of two or more, as in that just alluded to. Such an ovary is formed either by the union of the contiguous margins of the flattened open ovaries of the carpels of which it is composed, as in the Mignonette (*fig 424*); or by the union of carpels the ovaries of which are only partially folded inwards, so that all their

cavities communicate in the centre, and hence such a compound ovary is really unilocular, as in the *Oichis* (*fig* 425), and Poppy (*fig* 426)

Having now described the parts, nature, and structure of the carpel, and of the gynoecium or pistil generally, we proceed in the next place to allude separately to the constituent parts of the carpel, both in a free and combined state, namely, the ovary, style, and stigma

1 THE OVARY.—The ovary, as already mentioned, is called *compound* when it is composed of two or more ovaries combined together, or, on the contrary, it is *simple* when it constitutes the lower part of a simple pistil (*fig* 396, o), or

FIG 427

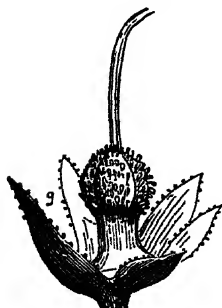


FIG 428

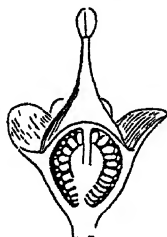


FIG 429

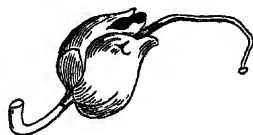


Fig 427 Pistil of *Dictamnus Fraxinella* The ovary is supported on a gynophore, *a*, and is superior — *Fig* 428 Vertical section of the flower of a Saxifrage, showing the ovary partially adherent to the calyx — *Fig* 429 Compound irregular mature ovary of *Anthrimum*

of one of the carpels of an apocarpous pistil (*fig* 279). It should be noticed, therefore, that the terms simple pistil and simple ovary are not in all cases synonymous terms, thus, a pistil is only said to be simple (*figs* 396 and 406), when it is formed of but one carpel, the terms pistil and carpel being then mutually convertible, but an ovary is simple, as just noticed, whether it forms part of a simple pistil, as in Leguminous plants generally (*fig* 406), or of one of the carpels of an apocarpous pistil, as in the Stonecrop (*fig* 279)

Generally speaking, the ovary is *sessile* upon the thalamus, the carpellary leaves out of which it is formed having no stalks. In rare cases, however, the ovary is more or less elevated above the outer whorls, when it is said to be *stalked* or *stipitate*, as in

the *Dictamnus* (fig 427, *q*), and *Dianthus* (fig. 405, *g*), this stalk has received the name of *gynophore*.

The ovary, whether simple or compound, may be either adherent to the calyx or free from it. In the former case, as in the Myrtle (fig 270), it is *inferior* or *adherent*, and the calyx is *superior*, in the latter, as in *Dictamnus* (fig. 427), it is *superior* or *free*, and the calyx is *inferior*. In some flowers the ovary is but partially adherent to the calyx, as in the species of Saxifrage (fig 428), in which case it is sometimes termed *half-adherent* or *half-inferior*, and the calyx is then said to be *half-superior*, the latter terms are, however, but rarely used, the ovary being commonly described as inferior, whether its adhesion to the calyx be complete, or only partially so, and *vice versa*.

The student must be careful not to confound the inferior ovary, as now described, with the apparently inferior ovaries of such flowers as the Rose (fig. 280), where the thalamus, *r*, *v*, is concave and attached to the tube of calyx, *ct*, and bears a number of carpels, *c*, *c*, on its inner walls. A longitudinal section will at once show the difference, thus, in the Rose, we should then find a single cavity open at its summit, and its walls covered with distinct carpels. The ovaries of the Rose are therefore superior or free.

The ovary varies much in form and in the character of its surface when *simple* it is generally more or less irregular in form, but when *compound*, it is commonly regular. Exceptions to the regularity of compound ovaries may be seen in the *Antirrhinum* (fig 429), and in other instances. In form, the compound ovary is generally more or less spheroidal, or ovoid. The outer surface may be either perfectly even or uniform, thus showing no trace of its internal divisions, or it may be marked by furrows extending from its base to the origin of the style and corresponding to the points of union of its constituent carpels. When these furrows are deep, the ovary assumes a lobed appearance, and is described as *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, *five*, or *many-lobed*, according to the number of its lobes. Sometimes we find, in addition to the furrows which correspond to the points of union of the ovaries, others of a more superficial character which correspond to the dorsal sutures. At the latter points, however, it is more common to find slight projections, which then give a somewhat angular appearance to the ovary.

When the ovary is compound, the number of carpels of which

it is composed may be ascertained in one or more of the following ways. When the styles (*fig. 290*), or stigmas (*fig. 346*), remain distinct, the number of these generally corresponds to the number of carpels. It does, however, occasionally happen, as in *Euphorbia* (*fig. 430*), that the styles are themselves divided, in which case they would of course indicate a greater number of carpels than are actually present, we must then resort to other modes of ascertaining this point, such, for instance, as the furrows or lobes on the external surface of the ovary; or the number of partitions or loculi which it contains, as these commonly correspond in number to the carpels of which that ovary is composed. The mode of venation may in some cases also form a guide in the determination, while in others the manner in which the ovules are attached must be

FIG. 430



FIG. 431

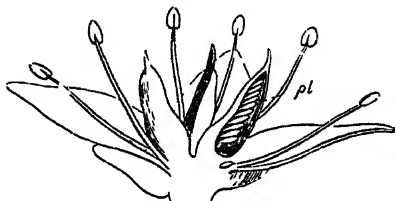


Fig. 430 Pistillate flower of a species of *Euphorbia*, with three forked styles.
Fig. 431 Vertical section of the flower of the Stonecrop. *pl* Placenta of one of the ovaries arising from the ventral suture.

taken into consideration. We now pass to the examination of the latter point.

The term *placenta* is commonly applied to the more or less marked projection occurring in the cavity of the ovary (*figs. 398 p*, and *431, pl*), to which the ovule or ovules are attached. The placentas are variously distributed in the ovaries of different plants, but their arrangement is always the same for that of any particular species, and frequently throughout entire genera, or even natural orders, hence their accurate discrimination is of great practical importance (see page 197). The term *placentation* is used to indicate the manner in which the placentas are distributed.

a Kinds of Placentation —In the monocarpellary ovary the placenta is usually situated at the ventral suture or that point which corresponds to the union of the two margins of the blade of the carpellary leaf (*figs. 398, 399, and 431*), out of

which it is formed, such a placenta is therefore usually termed *marginal*

In compound ovaries we have three kinds of placentation, namely, *axile*, *parietal*, and *free central*. The *axile* form occurs in all compound many-celled ovaries, because in these each of the ovaries of the component carpels is placed in a similar position to that of the simple ovary (figs 415 and 416), and hence the placentas situated at their ventral sutures will be arranged in the centre or axis, as in the Lily (fig 432), and *Campanula* (fig 433)

In a compound one-celled ovary there are two forms of placentation, namely, the *parietal*, and the *free-central*. The placentation is termed *parietal*, when the ovules are attached to placentas either placed directly on the inner wall of the ovary,

FIG 432

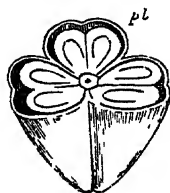


FIG 433

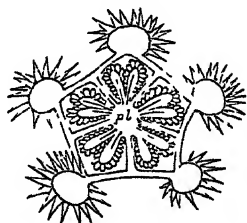


FIG 434



Fig 432 Transverse section of the compound ovary of the Lily. The ovary is three celled (trilocular). The placenta, *pl*, is axile or central — Fig 433 Transverse section of the ovary of a species of *Campanula*. The ovary is five celled or quincuncular and the placentation, *pl*, axile or central — Fig 434 Transverse section of the ovary of a species of *Cactus*. The ovary is one-celled and the placentation parietal

as in the Mignonette (fig 424, *pl*), and Cactus (fig. 434), or upon incomplete dissepiments formed, as already noticed, by the partially infolded ovaries, as in the species of *Ochis* (fig. 425, *pl*) and Poppy (fig 426, *plac*). In parietal placentation, the number of placentas corresponds to the number of carpels of which the ovary is formed, and their position to the edges of the carpellary leaves. When the placentas are not attached to the inner wall of the ovary, but are situated in the centre of the cavity and perfectly unconnected with the wall, they form what is called a *free central placenta*, as in the Caryophyllaceæ (figs. 436, *pl*, and 437, *p*), and the Primulaceæ (fig 438, *pl*)

Besides the regular kinds of placentation just described, it sometimes happens that the ovules are placed more or less

irregularly in the cavity of the ovary. Thus, in the Flowering Rush (*fig. 439*), they cover the whole inner surface of the ovary except the midrib; in which case the placentation is sometimes described as *superficial*. Other irregularities also occur thus, in

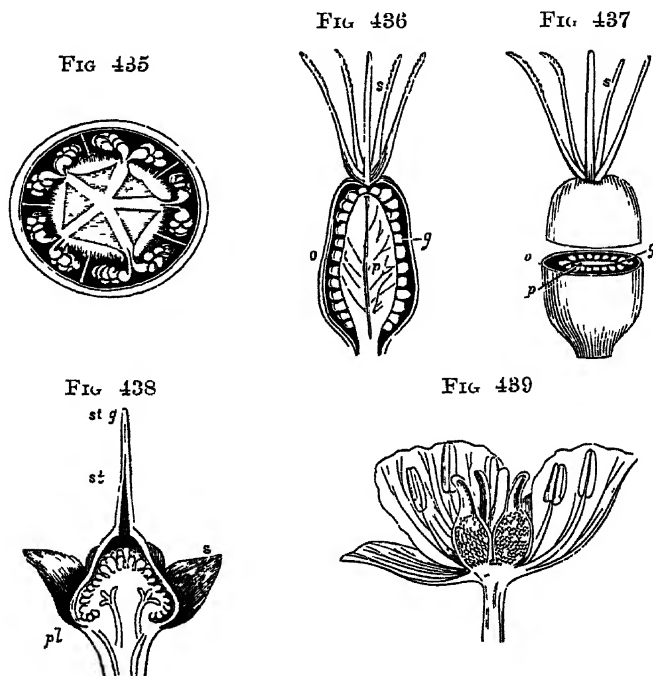


Fig 435 Transverse section of the young ovary of Campon (*Luchus*), showing five partitions proceeding from the walls of the ovary to the placenta in the centre, these partitions are ultimately destroyed by the growth of the ovary, so that the placentation is ultimately free — *Fig 436* Vertical section of *Cerastium hiurum* (*Caryophyllaceae*) o Ovary p Free central placenta q Ovules s Styles and stigmas — *Fig 437* Transverse section of the same with the two portions or sections separated o Ovary p Placenta q Ovules s Styles and stigmas From Jusieu — *Fig 438* Vertical section of the pistil of *Cyclamen* (*Primulaceae*) s Sepals pl Free central placenta s Style sty Stigma — *Fig 439* Vertical section of the flower of the Flowering Rush (*Butomus umbellatus*), showing the inner surface of the ovary covered all over with ovules

Nymphæa, they are attached all over the dissepiments, in *Cabomba*, they arise from the dorsal suture; and in the Broom-rapes (*Orobanchæ*), from placentas placed within the margins of the ventral suture

b Origin of the Placenta —It is generally believed that the placenta is, in most cases at least, a cellular growth developed from the confluent margins of the carpels, or, more strictly speaking, from the confluent margins of the blades of the carpellary leaves. In some cases the placenta extends along the whole line of union of the carpel (*fig. 481, p. 7*), or it may be confined to its base or apex. Each placenta is therefore to be considered as composed of two halves, one half being formed by each margin of the carpel. Thus in simple ovaries the placenta is developed by a single carpel. In compound many-celled ovaries the placentas are formed by the union at the centre of the ovary of the intumed margins of the carpels; while in compound one-celled ovaries presenting parietal placentation, each placenta is formed from the contiguous margins of two carpels which do not meet in the centre.

That the placentas are really developed in the above forms of placentation from the margins of the carpels seems to be proved in various ways. Thus, in the first place, the placentas always correspond in regular kinds of placentation to the points of union of the margins of the carpel or carpels, and hence would naturally be considered as formed from them, and secondly, we frequently find, that in monstrosities or abnormal growths where the carpel is developed in a more or less flattened condition, a placenta bearing ovules is formed upon each of its margins.

But in reference to the origin of the free central placenta two different views are entertained. Thus it was formerly supposed that this also was a development from the margins of the carpels. It was thought that the carpels of which the compound ovary was formed originally met in the centre and developed placentas from their margins in the same manner as in ordinary axile placentation, but that subsequently the walls of the ovary grew more rapidly than the dissepiments, so that the connection between them was soon destroyed, and that from this cause, and also from the great subsequent development of the placenta, the septa ultimately became almost or quite broken up, so that the placenta was left free in the cavity of the ovary. This theory is strengthened by the fact, that in several of the Caryophyllaceæ we often find dissepiments in the young ovary (*fig. 485*), and even traces of these at the lower part of the mature ovary; hence it may be concluded that these are the remains of dissepiments which have become ruptured on account of the unequal development of the parts of the

ovary. In the Primrose, however, and many other plants, which have a free central placenta, no traces of dissepiments can be found at any period of the growth of the Ovary. Duchaire, and others also, who have traced the development of the ovary in the Primulaceæ, state that the placenta is free in the centre from its earliest appearance, that it is originally a little papilla on the apex of the thalamus, and that the walls of the future ovary grow up perfectly free, and ultimately enclose it. The formation of such a free central placenta cannot therefore be well explained upon the marginal theory, as the carpels have never had any connection with it except at their bases. Nor is it necessary to suppose that the placenta is essentially of foliar origin. Since it has been established

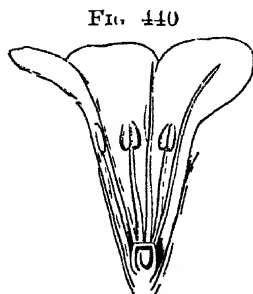


FIG. 440 Vertical section of the flower of *Admeria*. The ovary is seen to contain only a single ovule suspended from a funiculus or stalk. The ovule is here said to be inclinate.

that the ovule is to be looked upon as the macrosporangium of the flowering plant, it follows that it may be produced, as other sporangia are in some of the lower forms, either from the axis itself, or from foliar outgrowths from it (sporophylls). The case of the Yew, already referred to, is another case of axial origin, the ovule being here naked and terminal. Other cases have been already referred to, and to them the instance of the Plumbaginaceæ may be added. In *Admeria*, a genus of that natural order, the ovary, which is composed of five carpels, surrounds a single ovule, rising from the axis, supported on a stalk which curves downwards at its apex, and thus suspends the ovule

free in the centre of the cavity (fig 440). Here, therefore, the ovule and placenta are developments of the axis.

From all that has now been stated, we may draw the following conclusions, namely —that no one theory sufficiently accounts for the production of the placenta in all cases, but that the axile, parietal, and some forms of the free central placentation may be best explained on the foliar hypothesis, and that the formation of the free central placenta of the Primulaceæ, Santalaceæ, and some other plants, can only be satisfactorily explained by considering the placenta as a production of the axis.

From a practical point of view, the mode of production of the

placenta is of little importance. The accurate discrimination of the different kinds is, however, of much value in Descriptive Botany, by affording us constant, and hence important characters for distinguishing plants. Some natural orders exhibit more than one variety of placentation, and cannot be therefore distinguished by any particular kind, hence, in such orders, the placentation can only be applied in obtaining good characteristics of the genera. In the majority of instances, however, we find one kind of placentation occurring throughout all the plants of a particular natural order. Thus, the Scrophulariaceæ, Ericaceæ, and Campanulaceæ present us with axile placentation, the

FIG 441



FIG 442



FIG 443

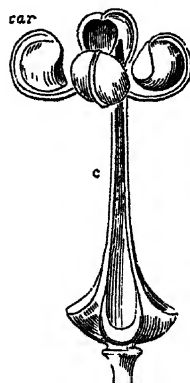


Fig 441 One of the carpels of the Strawberry with a lateral style.—

Fig 442 Carpel of *Alchemilla* with a basilar style. The stigma is capitate.

Fig 443 The carpophore, *c*, of a species of *Geranium*, with the rolled-back carpels *car*.

Papaveraceæ, Violaceæ, and Cruciferae with parietal; and the Caryophyllaceæ, Santalaceæ, and Primulaceæ, with free central placentation.

2 THE STYLE.—The style usually arises from the geometrical summit of the ovary, of which it is a continuation in an upward direction, as in the Primrose (fig 395) it is then termed *apical*. In other cases, the apex of the ovary becomes inflected towards the side or base, from the carpel or carpels of which it is formed, being folded like ordinary leaves in reclinate vernation, the style then becomes *lateral* as in the Strawberry (fig. 441), or *basilar* as in *Alchemilla* (fig 442). In the two latter cases, therefore,

the geometrical and organic apices of the ovary do not correspond as the point of origin of the style always determines the latter.

The style is generally directly continuous with the ovary, which gradually tapers upwards to it, as in *Digitalis*, in which case it is *persistent*, and then it forms a more or less evident part of the fruit, at other times, however, there is a kind of contraction or species of articulation at the point where the style springs from the ovary, as in *Scirpus*, and then the style always falls off after the process of fertilisation is completed, in which case it is said to be *deciduous*, and has no connection with the fruit.

FIG. 444

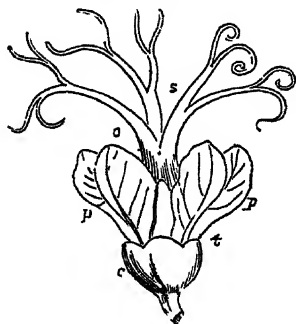


FIG. 445

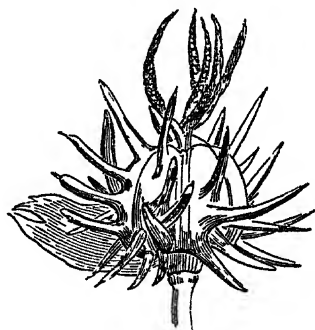


Fig. 444 Female flower of one of the *Euphorbiaceæ*. c Calyx. p, p Petals. t Membranous expansion round the ovary. o Ovary, with three styles, each of which is twice-forked.—Fig. 445 Ovary of the Castor-oil Plant (*Ricinus communis*), belonging to the *Euphorbiaceæ*. The styles in this case are once forked.

When the style is basilar or lateral, and the ovary to which it is attached more or less imbedded in the thalamus, it frequently appears to spring from the latter part, such an arrangement is called a *gynobasæ*, and the ovary is said to be *gynobasæ*. Thus in the *Labiatæ* (fig. 412), and *Boraginaceæ* (fig. 413), the ovaries are free, but the styles become connected and form a central column, which appears therefore as if it were a prolongation of the thalamus.

Such an arrangement must not be confounded with that of the ovaries and styles of the species of *Geranium* (fig. 443), and some other plants, where the axis is prolonged in the form of a beak-like process, to which the ovaries and styles become united,

and from which they separate when the fruit is ripe. This prolongation of the thalamus is termed a *carpopore*.

When the styles of a syncarpous pistil are distinct, they usually correspond to the number of carpels of which that pistil is composed. It sometimes happens, however, that the style of each carpel bifurcates or becomes forked, as in some Euphorbiaceæ, either once (*figs* 430 and 445), or twice (*fig* 444), in which case the apparent number of the styles above is then double or quadruple that of the carpels.

When two or more styles are united into one body, this is termed a *compound style*. This adhesion may take place either entirely as in the Primrose (*fig.* 395), when the style is termed *simple*, or the union is more or less incomplete as we proceed towards its apex, and corresponding terms are used accordingly. These terms are similar to those previously mentioned in describing the degrees of division of the other parts of the plant: thus the style is said to be cleft, when the union between the component styles extends to at least midway between their base and apex, and the style is said to be *bifid*, *trifid*, *quadrifid*, *quinquefid*, or *multifid*, according as it is *two*, *three*, *four*, *five*, or *many-cleft*. If the union between the component styles does not extend to midway between their base and apex, the style is *partite*, and is described as *bipartite*, *tripartite*, *quadripartite*, &c, according to the number of partitions.

Form and Surface of the Style—In form the style is generally more or less cylindrical; and either tapering from the base to the apex, as is more frequently the case, or becoming enlarged as it proceeds upwards. At other times the style is filiform, or more or less thickened, or angular, and rarely thin, coloured, and flattened like a petal, as in the species of *Canna* and *Iris* (*fig* 446), when it is said to be *petaloid*.

The surface of the style may be either smooth, or covered in various ways with glands or hairs. These hairs when situated on the style frequently serve the purpose of collecting the pollen as it is discharged from the anther, and are hence termed *collecting hairs*. The collecting hairs on the style of the species of *Campanula* are retractile. In the Compositæ the surface of the style is also more or less covered with stiff collecting hairs (*fig.* 448, *pc*), as the style is developed later than the stamens, it is at first shorter than these organs, but as growth proceeds, it pushes itself through the adhering anthers, and thus the hairs on its surface come in contact with the pollen.

and become covered with it. In some of the orders allied to the Compositæ, the hairs form a little ring below the stigma (*fig* 447, 1)

3 THE STIGMA.—The stigmas of a syncarpous pistil are generally opposite to the cells, and alternate with the dissepiments, but it sometimes happens, as in the Poppy, that half the stigma of one carpel unites with a similar half of that of the adjoining carpel, and thus it becomes alternate with the cells, and opposite to the dissepiments, which are here, however, imperfect (*fig* 426)

We have already seen that the stigma may be separated from

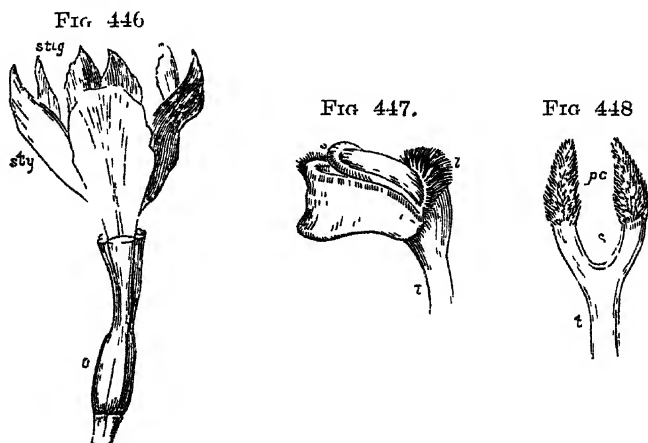


Fig 446 Pistil of a species of *Iris*. *o* Ovary *sty* Petaloid styles *stig* Stigma.—*Fig 447* Upper part of the style and stigma of *Iresine*. *t* Style *s* Stigma.—*Fig 448* Upper part of the style, *t*, of a Composite plant, dividing into two branches, which are covered above by collecting hairs, *pc*

the ovary by the style (*figs.* 395 to 397), or the latter organ may be absent, in which case the stigma is said to be *sessile*, as in the Barberry (*fig* 398, *st*) and Poppy. In Orchids the stigma is sessile on the gynostemium, and appears as a little cup-shaped viscid space just below the attachment of the pollen-masses

In a syncarpous pistil the stigmas may be either united together as in the Primrose (*fig* 395), or distinct as in the *Campanula* (*fig.* 383), in the latter case, instead of looking upon these separate parts as so many distinct stigmas, it is usual to describe

them as if they were portions of but one, thus we speak of the stigma as *bifid*, *trifid*, &c, or as *bilobate*, *trilobate*, &c, according to the number and character of its divisions. Thus the

FIG. 449



FIG. 450



FIG. 451



Fig. 449 Pistil of a Lily, with one style and a trilobate stigma — Fig. 450 Lobed stigma of the Melon — Fig. 451 Pistil of a species of *Chrysanthemum*, with one style and a bifid stigma, the divisions with hairs at their extremities

term *lobe* is usually applied when the divisions are thick, as in the Lily (fig. 449) and Melon (fig. 450), or when these are

FIG. 452

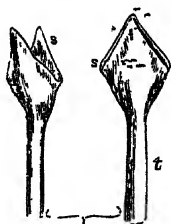


FIG. 453

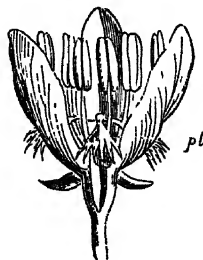


Fig. 452 Stigma, *s*, attached to style, *t*, of *Bignonia arborea*. In the left-hand figure the *lamellæ* are separate, in the other applied closely to each other — Fig. 453 Flower of a species of *Rumez*, showing fringed stigmas, *pl*

flattened and somewhat strap-shaped, as in the Compositæ (fig. 451), the stigma is *fissured* or *cleft*, or when flattened into plates or bands they are termed *lamellæ*, as in *Bignonia* (fig.

452) and *Mimulus*. The number of these divisions in the majority of instances corresponds to the number of carpels of which the pistil is composed, and if the latter organ is many-celled, the number of cells will generally correspond also to the divisions of the stigma. Thus the five-cleft stigma of some *Campanulas* indicates that there are five cells to the ovary, and that the pistil is formed of five carpels. In the *Giaminaceæ* (fig 404) and *Compositæ* (figs 448 and 451), however, we have a bifid stigma, and but one cell in the ovary.

The lobes assume different appearances. thus, they may be smooth, or thick and fleshy as in the Melon (fig. 450), or feathery as in many Grasses (fig 404), or fringed or lacinate as in the *Rumex* (fig 453, pl)

When the stigmas are united, the number of parts in the

FIG 454



FIG 455



FIG 456

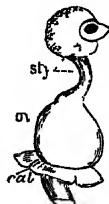


Fig 454 s Peltate or shield shaped stigma surmounting the style, t, of a species of *Arbutus*—Fig 455 Pistil of *Daphne* o Ovary st Style stig Stigma—Fig 456 Pistil of Pansy (*Viola tricolor*) cal Remains of calyx of Ovary sty Style, surmounted by an irregular hooded stigma

compound stigma is usually indicated by radiating furrows, or grooves. When the stigmas unite and form a compound body upon the top of the style, which is larger than it, this compound stigma or head is said to be *capitate*, and this head may be either globular as in *Daphne* (fig 455, stig), or hemispherical as in the Primrose (fig 395), or polyhedral, or club-shaped, or peltate or shield-shaped as in the *Arbutus* (fig 454, s), and Poppy. In the Violet (fig. 456), the stigma presents an irregular hooded appearance.

THE FLOWER-BUD. ÆSTIVATION OR PRÆFLORATION.

The mode in which the different parts of the flower are disposed in the flower-bud is termed their *æstivation* or *præfloration*. The terms used in æstivation especially refer to the

relative positions of the component parts of the calyx and corolla, because the stamens and carpels, from their peculiar forms, can give us no such arrangements of their parts as are exhibited by the more or less flattened floral envelopes.

In describing the modifications of æstivation, we have to include 1st, the disposition of each of the component parts of the floral envelopes, considered independently of the others, and 2nd, the relation of the several members of either of the floral envelopes taken as a whole in respect to one another. With regard to the disposition of each of the component parts of the floral envelopes considered independently of the others, the same terms are used as in similar modifications of vernalion (page 86), with the addition of the *crumpled* or *corrugated* form, which is not found in the parts of the leaf-bud. This latter variety may be seen in the petals of the Poppy (*Papaver*), and

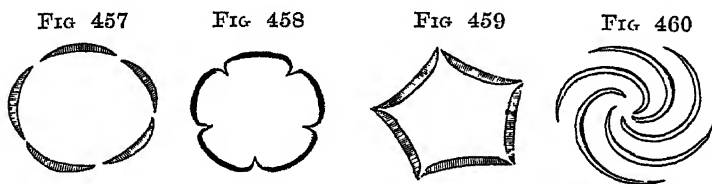


Fig. 457 Diagram to illustrate valvate æstivation — Fig. 458 Diagram to illustrate induplicate æstivation — Fig. 459 Diagram to illustrate reduplicate æstivation — Fig. 460 Diagram to illustrate contorted or twisted æstivation

Rock Rose (*Helianthemum*), and it derives its name from the parts being irregularly contracted into wrinkled folds

With respect to the relation of the several members of either of the floral envelopes taken as a whole to one another, various modifications occur, all of which may be arranged in two divisions, namely, the *Circular* or *Valvate* and the *Imbricated*.

1 *Varieties of Circular Æstivation* — We distinguish three well-marked varieties of circular æstivation, i.e. the *valvate*, *induplicate*, and *reduplicate*. The *valvate* (fig. 457) may be seen in the calyx of the Lime, and in that of *Guazuma ulmifolia*; in this variety the component parts are flat or nearly so, and in contact by their margins throughout their whole length without any overlapping. This variety of æstivation may be generally distinguished, even when the flowers are expanded, by the margins of its component parts being slightly thickened, or at all events not thinner than the rest of the organ; whereas in all varieties

of imbricated æstivation the overlapping margins are usually thinner, as may be well seen in the sepals of the species of *Geranium*. When the component sepals, or petals, instead of being flattened, are folded inwards at the points where they come in contact (*fig* 458), the æstivation is *induplicate*, as in the petals of *Guauma ulmifolia*, and in the sepals of some species of *Clematis*. When the margins are turned outwards under the same circumstances (*fig* 459), the æstivation is *reduplicate*, as in the sepals of the Hollyhock (*Althæa rosea*), and some other Malvaceous plants, and in the petals of the Potato

When the parts of a whorl are placed at the same height, or apparently so, as in the ordinary forms of circular æstivation, and one margin of each part is directed obliquely inwards, and is overlapped by the part adjacent on that side, while the other margin covers the corresponding margin of the adjoining part on the other side, so that the whole presents a more or less twisted appearance (*fig*. 460), the æstivation is *contorted* or *twisted*. It occurs very frequently in the corolla, but is very rare in the calyx. Examples may be seen in the corolla of the Hollyhock and other Malvaceous plants, in that of the common Flax (*Linum usitatissimum*), and generally in the order Linacæ, in the St John's Wort (*Hypericum*), in the Periwinkle (*Vinca*), and in many other plants of the order Apocynacæ, to which this plant belongs. Twisted æstivation may be regarded as intermediate between the circular and imbricated forms. When in this variety of æstivation the component members are united, they may be variously *plaited* or *plicate*, as in the corolla of the common Bindweed and of other Convolvulacæ, in which case the æstivation is usually termed *plicate* or *plaited*.

2 *Varieties of Imbricated or Spiral Æstivation* — We distinguish five varieties of this kind of æstivation, i.e. the *imbricate*, *convolute* or *enveloping*, *quincuncial*, *cochlear*, and *verilary*. The true *imbricate* æstivation, as seen for instance in the calyx of *Camellia japonica* (*fig* 461), is formed by the component parts being placed at different levels, and overlapping each other more or less by their margins like the tiles on the roof of a house, this is a very common variety. When the parts, instead of merely overlapping, completely envelope each other, as in those of the calyx of *Magnolia grandiflora*, and in those of the corolla of *Camellia japonica*, the æstivation is termed *convolute* by some botanists, but this term is now more frequently applied to the contorted variety of æstivation, when the parts overlap to a considerable degree, as in the Wallflower

When the parts of a floral whorl are five in number, and these arranged in such a manner that there are two parts placed on the outside, two inside, and the fifth overlapping one of the internal by one margin, while it is itself overlapped on its other margin by one of the external parts, the aestivation is said to be *quincuncial* (*fig* 462). Familiar examples of this form are afforded by the corolla of the Rose, and the calyx of the Bindweed (*Convolvulus sepium*). In this kind of aestivation a spiral arrangement of the parts is well seen, and is indicated in the diagram (*fig* 462) by a dotted line. The spiral cycle thus formed, which is the normal one in *pentamerous* or *quinary* flowers (those with the parts in fives), and which occurs in the majority of Dicotyledons, corresponds to the $\frac{2}{5}$, *pentastichous*,

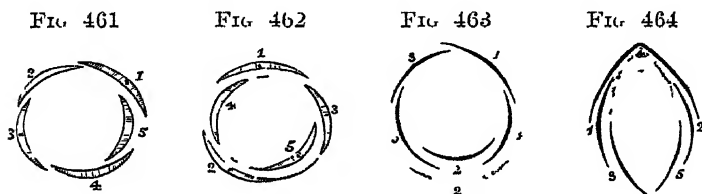


FIG. 461 Diagram to illustrate imbricate aestivation. The figures, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, show that the successive parts are arranged in a spiral manner. — *FIG. 462* Diagram to illustrate quincuncial aestivation. 1 and 2 are external, 4 and 5 internal, and 3 is partly external and partly internal. — *FIG. 463* Diagram to illustrate cochlear aestivation. The part marked 2 in the preceding diagram is here wholly internal instead of external as in the quincuncial arrangement. The dotted line marked 2 indicates its normal position in the true quincuncial variety of aestivation. — *FIG. 464* Diagram to illustrate vexillary aestivation. 1 and 2 form the *che* or *wings*, 3 and 5 the *carina* or *keel*, 4 the *vexillum*. (See *Papilionaceous Corolla*.)

or *five-ranked* arrangement of leaves. When in a quincuncial arrangement the second part of the cycle becomes wholly internal instead of being external, the regularity of the quincuncial is interrupted, and a variety of aestivation occurs to which the name *cochlear* has been given (*fig* 463). Familiar examples of this are afforded by the Snapdragon (*Antirrhinum majus*), and other allied plants. Another marked modification of imbricated aestivation occurs in the corolla of the Pea and other allied plants, where the superior petal 4, which is generally the largest, and called the *vexillum*, is folded over the others which are arranged face to face (*fig* 464). This kind of aestivation is commonly termed *vexillary*.

It frequently happens that the calyx and corolla exhibit different kinds of aestivation. Thus, in *Guazuma ulmifolia* the

calyx is *valvate*, and the corolla *induplicate*. In Malvaceous plants the calyx is *valvate* or shows some form of circular æstivation, and the corolla *twisted*. In these two examples the different varieties of æstivation, as exhibited by the two floral envelopes, may be considered to belong to the same class of æstivation, i.e. the *circular*. But instances also frequently occur where the calyx and corolla present different modifications, and which belong to both classes, thus, in the Corn Cockle (*Githago segetum*), the species of St John's Wort (*Hypericum*), the Geranium, and in many other plants, the calyx is *quincuncial* or *imbricate*, and the corolla *twisted*.

The kinds of æstivation above described are always constant in the same individual, and frequently throughout entire genera, and even natural orders, hence they are of great importance in Systematic Botany.

The term *anthesis* is sometimes used to indicate the period at which the flower-bud opens.

Besides the definite and constant relations which the parts of the floral envelopes have to one another in the flower-bud, they have also a definite and constant relation in the same plant to the axis upon which they are placed. In describing these positions we use the terms *anterior* or *inferior*, *superior* or *posterior*, and *lateral*. Thus, we call that organ *posterior* or *superior*, which is turned towards the axis, and that next the bract from the axil of which it arises, *inferior* or *anterior*. When there are four organs in a whorl, one will be *superior*, one *inferior*, and two *lateral*, as in the sepals of the Wall-flower. If there are five we have two arrangements. Thus, in the calyx of the order Leguminosæ, two sepals are *superior*, two *lateral*, and one *inferior*, while in the corolla one petal is *superior*, two *inferior*, and two *lateral* (figs 303 and 464). But in plants of the order Rosaceæ we have a precisely reverse position exhibited by the parts of the two floral envelopes, thus, here we have two sepals *inferior*, two *lateral*, and one *superior*, while in the corolla there are two petals *superior*, two *lateral*, and one *inferior* (fig 302).

The same definite relation with respect to the axis also holds good in many cases in the staminal and carpellary whorls, by which important distinctive characters are frequently obtained, as will be seen afterwards when treating of Systematic Botany.

THE OVULE

We have seen that the carpel is especially characterised by its bearing in nearly all cases the structures known as ovules which we have already stated to be the macrosporangia of the plant. They differ in complexity of structure from the sporangia of the vascular cryptogams, but their identity of nature will be demonstrated later in treating of their anatomy and development. The true homologue of the ovule is rather the sorus of a fern containing one sporangium, and covered by an indusium, as in *Adiantum*. The coatings of the ovule correspond to the latter, and its mass to the sporangium.

An ovule of an Angiospermous plant consists of an ovoid body, which in section shows the parts represented in fig 469. There is a central mass of tissue which constitutes the bulk of the structure, and is called the *nucellus*. This is surrounded by certain coats or integuments which grow up round it and enclose it, with the exception of a small canal or passage at the apex. This passage is known as the *micropyle*. In the interior of the nucellus is a conspicuously large cell with thin walls, which is the *macrospore* or *embryo-sac*. The macrospore never lies free in the interior of the sporangium, as in the case of the microspores already described. It is always at first surrounded closely by the tissue of the nucellus, and in its growth it absorbs the whole or a good deal of the latter in some cases encroaching even upon the substance of the integuments. Sometimes more than one macrospore is produced, but this is unusual. Only one comes to maturity in such cases.

The ovule is either attached directly to the placenta, when it is said to be *sessile* (fig. 436, *g*), or indirectly by a stalk called the *funiculus* or *funicle* (figs 418, *ov*, and 440), when it is described as stalked. The point of attachment of the ovule to the placenta if sessile, or to the funiculus when stalked, is termed the *hilum*.

Some ovules, as those of the Mistletoe (fig 466), consist simply of the nucellus, *n*, and embryo-sac, *c*, as above described, in which case the nucellus is termed *naked* (fig 465), but in almost all plants it becomes enclosed in one or two coats. Thus, in the Walnut there is but one coat, which appears at first as a little circular process around its base, this gradually increases in size, and by growing upwards ultimately forms a sheath or cellular coat to the nucellus, which it entirely closes except at the apex, where a small opening may be always observed (fig.

467, *end*) The coat thus formed, where there is but one, is called the *integumentum simplex*, *s.*, and the orifice, *end*, at the apex of the nucellus, *n.* is termed the *micropyle* or *foramen*. Besides the Walnut, there is only one coat formed in the Composite, Campanulaceæ, Lobeliaceæ and some other orders.

In most plants, however, the ovule has two coats, in which case we observe two circular or annular processes around the base of the nucellus, the inner one being first developed, these processes continue to grow upwards as before described, until they also ultimately form two sheaths or coats, which entirely enclose the nucellus except at its apex (*fig* 468). The inner coat is at first seen to project beyond the outer, but the latter ultimately reaches and encloses it. The inner coat is usually termed the *secundine* (*figs* 468, *s.* and 469, *c*) and the outer the

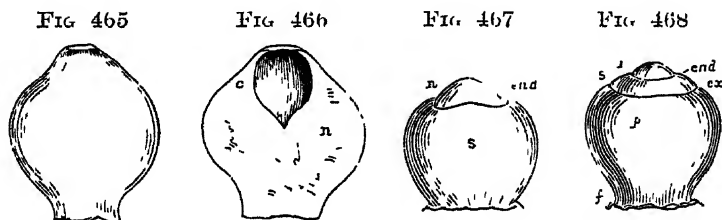


Fig 465 Ovule of the Mimulus (*Mimulus alpinus*) consisting of a naked nucellus. — *Fig* 466 The same ovule cut vertically to show the embryo sac *e* in the nucellus, *n*. — *Fig* 467 Ovule of the Walnut (*Juglans regia*) *n* Projecting end of the nucellus *s* Coat covering the nucellus except at the foramen, *end*. — *Fig* 468 Ovule of a species of *Polygonum* *p* End of ovule where it is attached to the placenta *p* Primine *s* Secundine *ex* Exostome *end* Endostome *n* Projecting end of the nucellus

primine; but some botanists, following the order of development of the coats, term the inner coat the *primine*, and the outer the *secundine*, thus reversing the order of names as above mentioned. Others, to prevent confusion, more properly term the inner coat, or secundine, the *integumentum internum*, and the outer coat, or primine, the *integumentum externum*. The orifice left at the apex of the nucellus, as in the former instance where only one coat is present, is called the *foramen* or *micropyle*. The openings in the two coats commonly correspond to each other, but it is sometimes found convenient to distinguish them by distinct names, thus, that of the outer is called the *exostome* (*fig* 468, *ex*), that of the inner, *endostome* (*end*).

The nucellus and its coat or coats are intimately connected at one point by a cellulo-vascular cord or layer, called the

chala *a* (figs 470 *ch*, and 471, *ch*), but at the other parts of the ovule they are more or less distinct. This *chala* is the point where the vessels pass from the placenta, or when the ovule is stalked, from the funiculus into the ovule, for the purpose of affording nourishment to it, it is generally indicated by being coloured, and of a denser texture than the tissue by which it is surrounded. Through the micropyle the pollen-tube usually reaches the embryo-sac, as will be hereafter fully described.

RELATION OF THE HILUM, CHALAZA, AND MICROPYLE TO ONE ANOTHER.—When an ovule is first developed, the point of union of its coats and nucellus, called the *chalaza*, is at the base or hilum, close to the placenta or funiculus, in which case a straight line would pass from the micropyle through the axis of

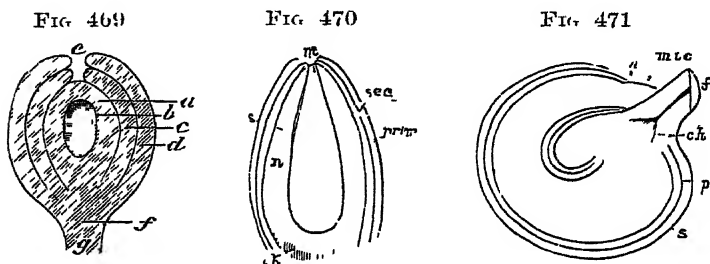


Fig. 469 Section of an ovule (diagrammatic) *a* Nucellus *b* Embryo sac *c* Inner coat *d* Outer coat *e* Micropyle *f* Chalaza *g* Funiculus or funicle.—Fig. 470 Vertical section of the orthotropous ovule of *Polygonum* *ch* Chalaza *prim* Primine *sec* Secundine *n* Nucellus *m* Embryo sac *m* Micropyle.—Fig. 471 Vertical section of a campylotropous ovule of Wallflower (*Cheiranthus*) *f* Funiculus *ch* Chalaza *p* Primine *s* Secundine *n* Nucellus *m* Micropyle

the nucellus and its coats to the hilum. In rare instances this relation of parts is preserved throughout its development, as in the *Polygonaceæ* (fig 470), when the ovule is termed *orthotropous*, *atropous*, or *straight*. In such an ovule, therefore, the micropyle, *m*, would be situated at its geometrical apex, or at the end farthest removed from the hilum, while the chalaza, *ch*, would be placed at its base.

It generally happens, however, that the ovule, instead of being straight as in the above instance, becomes more or less curved, or even altogether inverted. Thus in the *Wallflower* (fig 471), and other plants of the order to which it belongs, as well as in the *Caryophyllaceæ* and many other plants, the apex of the ovule becomes gradually turned downwards towards its

base, and is ultimately placed close to it, so that the whole nucellus is bent upon itself, and a line drawn from the micropyle, *mic*, through the axis of the nucellus, *n*, and its coats, would describe a curve, hence such ovules are called *campylotropous* or *curved*. In these ovules, the chalaza, *ch*, and hilum correspond as in orthotropous ones, but the micropyle, *mic*, instead of being at the geometrical apex of the ovule, is brought down close to the hilum or base. The progressive development of the campylotropous ovule is well seen in the Mallow, as represented in *fig* 472, *a, b, c, d*. This kind of ovule appears to be formed by one side of the nucellus developing more extensively than the other, so that the micropyle is pushed round to the base.

In a third class of ovules the relative position of parts is exactly the reverse of that of orthotropous ones—hence such are called *anatropous* or *inverted* ovules. This arises from

FIG 472.

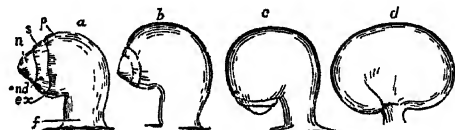


Fig 472 The campylotropous ovule of the Mallow in its different stages of development. From Le Maout. In *a* the curvature is commencing, in *b* it is more evident, in *c* still more marked, and in *d* it is completed. *f* Funiculus *p* Primine *s* Secundine *n* End of nucellus *ec* Exostome and Endostome

greater growth on one side than the other, the body of the nucellus, however remaining straight. It thus becomes completely inverted, so that the chalaza (*fig* 473, *ch*) is removed from the hilum, *h*, to the geometrical apex of the ovule, the micropyle, *f*, being at the same time turned towards the hilum, *h*. In anatropous ovules a connection is always maintained between the chalaza and the hilum by means of a vascular cord or ridge called the *raphe* (*fig* 473, *r*), which is the elongated funiculus adherent to the ovule. This raphe or cord of nutritive vessels passing from the placenta or funiculus, and by its expansion forming the chalaza, is generally situated in anatropous ovules on the side which is turned towards the placenta or funiculus. Anatropous ovules are very common, examples may be found in the Dandelion (*fig* 473), Apple, and Cucumber.

Besides the three kinds of ovules mentioned above, there is another kind more rarely met with which is intermediate between

orthotropous and anatropous, to which the name of *amphitropous* has been given. In this ovule, which is also called *heterotropous* or *transverse*, the hilum, *h*, is on one side, and the micropyle, *m*, and chalazal, *ch*, are placed transversely to it (fig. 474), and therefore parallel to the placenta. In this case the hilum is connected to the chalazal by a short raphe, *r*.

The ovules are commonly enclosed in an ovary (fig. 436), but all plants of the Coniferae, Cycadaceae, and allied orders are exceptions to this, thus in some Cycadaceae they are situated on the margins of leaves in a peculiarly metamorphosed condition, and in the Coniferae at the base of indurated bracts or open carpellary leaves (fig. 475, *ov*). In consequence of this such plants are called *Gymnospermous*, while those plants in

FIG 473

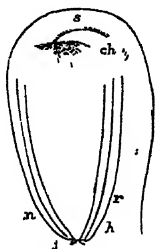


FIG. 474

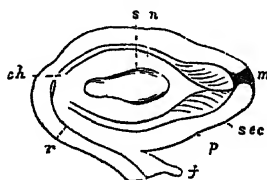


Fig 473 Vertical section of the anatropous ovule of the Dandelion *h* Hilum *f* Micropyle or foramen *n* Nucellus *b* Base of the nucellus *ch* Chalazal *r* Raphe — Fig 474 Longitudinal section of the amphitropous or transverse ovule of *Lemna trisulca* *f* Funiculus *n* Nucellus *p* Primine *sec* Secundine *embryo-sac* *ch* Chalazal *r* Raphe *m* Micropyle From Schleiden

which the ovules are distinctly enclosed in an ovary, are said to be *Angiospermous*. It should be noticed, however, that there are some plants in which the seeds become partially naked in the course of the development of the ovary into the fruit, as in the Mignonette (fig. 509), *Leontice*, and *Cuphea*. True Gymnospermous plants, or those in which the ovules are naked from their earliest formation, should be carefully distinguished from these latter, as the former character is always associated with important structural peculiarities in the plants themselves, as we have already noticed. Other important differences will also be described hereafter.

NUMBER AND POSITION OF THE OVULES — a *Number*. — The number of ovules in the ovary, or in each of its cells, varies

in different plants. Thus in the Polygonaceæ, Compositæ, Thymelacææ, and Dipsacææ, the ovary contains but a solitary ovule, in the Umbelliferae and Araliacææ, there is but one ovule in each cell. When there is more than one ovule in the ovary, or in each of its cells, the number may be either few and easily counted, when the ovules are said to be *definite*, as in *Æsculus* (fig 480),—and the ovary or cell is then described as *biovulate*, *triovulate*, *quadrivovulate*, *quincovovulate*, &c, or, the ovules may be very numerous, when they are said to be *multiovovulate* or *indefinite*, as in *Cerastium* (fig 436, *q*)

b *Position*.—The position of the ovules with regard to the cavity or cell in which they are placed is also liable to vary. Thus when there is but one ovule, this may arise at the bottom of the ovary or cell and be directed towards the summit, as in

FIG. 475

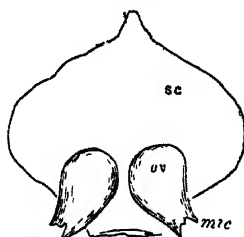


FIG. 476

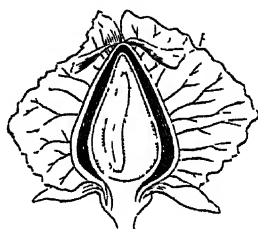


FIG. 475 Bract or carpellary leaf, *v*, of a species of *Pinus*, bearing two naked ovules, *ov*, at its base. *mic* Micropylar or foramen.—FIG. 476 Vertical section of the fruit of a species of *Rumex* (Polygonaceæ). *p* Enlarged calyx surrounding the fruit. The fruit contains a single erect orthotropous seed. The position of the ovule in the ovary is also described as erect and orthotropous. The embryo is inverted or antitropous.

Compositæ and Polygonaceæ (fig 476), when it is said to be *erect*, or it may be inserted at the summit of the ovary and be turned downwards, as in *Hippuris* (fig 477), in which case it is *inverse* or *pendulous*, or if it is attached a little above the base, and directed obliquely upwards as in *Parietaria* (fig 478), it is *ascending*, or if, on the contrary, it arises a little below the summit and is directed obliquely downwards, as in the *Mezereon* (fig 479) and *Apricot*, it is *suspended*, or if from the side of the ovary, without turning upwards or downwards, as in *Crassula*, it is *horizontal* or *peltate*. In some plants, as in *Artemisia* (fig 440), the ovule is suspended from the end of a long funiculus arising from the base of the ovary, such an ovule is frequently termed *reclinate*.

In the above cases the position of the ovule is in general constant, and hence this character is frequently of much importance in distinguishing genera, and even natural orders. Thus, in the Compositæ the solitary ovule is always erect, while in the allied orders, the Valerianaceæ and Dipsacæ, it is suspended or pendulous;—the two latter terms are frequently used indifferently by botanists. In the Polygonaceæ (*fig. 476*), the ovule, which springs from the axis, is also always solitary and erect, and in the Thymelacææ (*fig. 479*) it is suspended. In other natural orders we find the position varying in different genera although generally constant in the same, thus, in the

FIG. 477

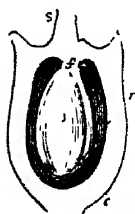


FIG. 478

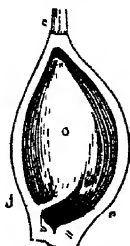


FIG. 479

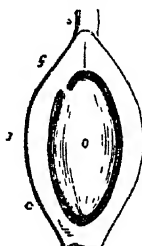


FIG. 480

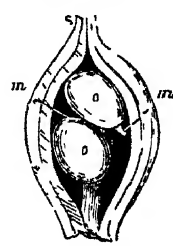


Fig. 477 Vertical section of the ovary of the Mare's Tail (*Hippuris vulgaris*). *o* Ovule which is erect or pendulous, and anatropous. *s* Base of the style. *f* Funiculus. *R* Rhiphe or Chalazæ. *Fig. 478* Vertical section of the ovary of the Pellitory (*Parietaria officinalis*), with a single ascending ovule. The letters have the same references as in the last figure. *Fig. 479* Vertical section of the ovary of the Mezereon (*Daphne Mezereum*), containing a solitary suspended ovule. The letters refer as before. From Jussieu. *Fig. 480* Vertical section of a cell of the ovary of a species of *Esculus* containing two ovules, *o, o'*, one of which is ascending and the other suspended. *m, m* The micropylar or foramen in the two ovules. *s* Base of the style. From Jussieu.

Rosacæ, the genera *Geum*, *Alchemilla*, and others, have an ascending ovule, while those of *Poterium*, *Sanguisorba*, &c., have it suspended, and in *Potentilla* both ascending and suspended ovules are found. In the Ranunculacæ also we find the ovule varying in like manner as regards its position.

We will now consider the position of the ovules when their number is more than one. When the ovary or cell has two ovules, these may be either placed side by side at the same level and have the same direction, as in *Nuttallia*, when they are said to be *collateral*, or they may be placed at different heights, and then they may either follow the same direction, when they are *superposed*, or one ovule may be ascending and the other sus-

pended, as in *Æsculus* (fig. 480). The position of the ovules in those cases where they are in definite numbers, is also usually constant and regular, and similar terms are employed, but when the number of ovules in the ovary or cell is indefinite, the relations are less constant, and depend in a great measure upon the shape of the cell and the size of the placentas. Thus in the long ovaries of many of the Leguminosæ and Cruciferæ (fig. 418), the ovules are superposed, and by not crowding each other they will all be turned in the same direction. If, on the contrary, the ovules are numerous, and developed in a small space, they will necessarily press against each other, and acquire irregular forms and varying positions, according to the direction of the pressure. In describing these varying positions the same terms are used as those referred to when speaking of the relations of the solitary ovule. These terms are also applied in the same sense to the relations of the seed in the pericarp.

SECTION III

REPRODUCTIVE ORGANS OF THE GAMETOPHYTE

We have seen that, besides the production of spores, plants bear also reproductive cells which are incapable by themselves of giving rise to a new individual, but which do so after coalescence in pairs. These cells are hence termed sexual cells, or *gametes*. They never arise on the sporophyte, but on the other form, the gametophyte. The latter, in some of the Algæ and Fungi, bears spores as well, whose structure and mode of origin present no features different from those already described.

The Gametes

The gametes show a great deal of variety of form, size, and degree of differentiation. In the lowliest Algæ they are not very different in appearance from the zoospores which the same plants produce, and are liberated in large numbers from the cells where they originate (fig. 481). They are somewhat pear-shaped masses of protoplasm without any protective coat, and furnished with two long tails or flagella of protoplasm, which spring from the narrow end of each mass. By means of these they are capable of movement in the water in which the plants exist. There is no difference between the gametes of such plants, which are consequently called *isogamous*. In certain other isogamous Algæ

(fig 481) the gametes are produced singly in each cell, and are then of greater dimensions, and are not furnished with flagella. These are not discharged into the water, as are the flagellate ones. The body arising from the fusion of the gametes of isogamous plants is called a *zygospore* or *zygote*.

In others of the Alga the gametes begin to show a greater degree of differentiation. In *Cutleria* they are of two sizes, they all swim about on their being liberated from the plant, but the larger soon come to rest, while the smaller maintain their power of motion much longer.

The smaller are held, therefore, to be male, and the larger female. Plants with such gametes are called *heterogamous*.

In the lowest Fungi, such as *Mucor*, we have gametes pro-

FIG 481

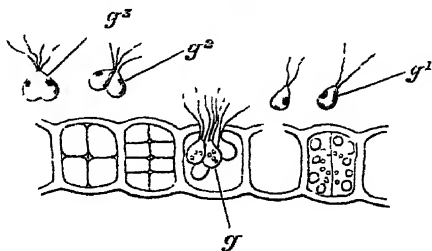


FIG 481 Part of a filament of *Ulothrix* from which the gametes, *g*, are escaping *g¹* Free gamete *g, g* Gametes conjugating

FIG. 482

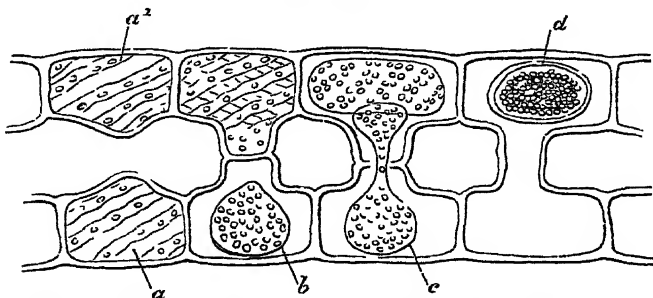


FIG 482 Conjugation in *Spirogyra* *a* Two filaments are lying side by side, and from cells opposite to each other protuberances are growing out to meet *a, a¹* Each produces a gamete, *b* When the protuberances have met and fused, one gamete passes over and unites with the other, *c* *d* Adult zygospore

duced in special branches of the mycelium (fig 483) These are undifferentiated masses of protoplasm which are never set free, but coalesce in consequence of the fusion of the cells in which they are formed.

In plants which are higher in the scale than those mentioned we find two kinds of gametes distinctly recognisable, which are truly male and female. As the habits of life of these plants show so much diversity, we find a good deal of difference of structure of the gametes, which can be traced to the environment and mode of life of the plants which produce them.

FIG 483

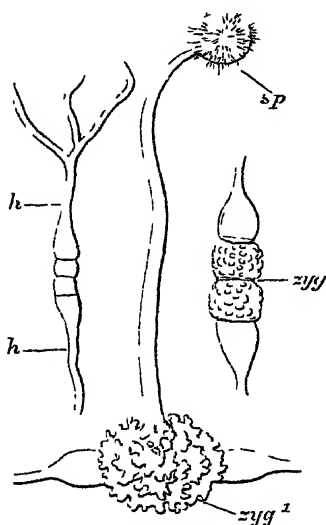


FIG 483 Conjugation in *Mucor*. *h* Two hyphae which have come into contact at their apices, and each has cut off from itself a cell *zyg*. Zygospore resulting from the fusion of these cells. *yg*! Adult zygospore after germination. *p* Mycelium bearing a sporangium *sp*.

The male gamete in the Cryptogams which live under such conditions that the coalescence of the sexual cells is brought about through the medium of water, is generally a free-swimming piece of protoplasm, furnished with cilia or flagella like those of the gametes of isogamous plants. The shape is usually clavate or filamentous, and with very few exceptions these gametes have no cell-wall. They are known as *antherozoids*. In most Red Seaweeds they have no cilia, and become clothed with a cell-wall after their liberation from the gametophyte. In certain of the Fungi, especially the Lichens, similar bodies occur,

FIG 484



FIG 484 A Antherozoids of Moss ($\times 1200$) B Antherozoids of Fern ($\times 700$)

which always have a cell-wall. Both these are frequently called *spermata*, to distinguish them from the motile forms. There is some doubt as to the true nature of the spermata in the latter

group many botanists inclining to the view that they are spores, and not gametes

Throughout the groups of the Mosses and Vascular Cryptogams the ciliated antherozoid is always found (*fig* 484)

In other forms, in which the coalescence does not take place by means of water, the differentiation of the male gamete is much less marked. It is only a mass, usually of very small size, of undifferentiated protoplasm. It never escapes from the seat of its formation until conditions are such as to enable it at once

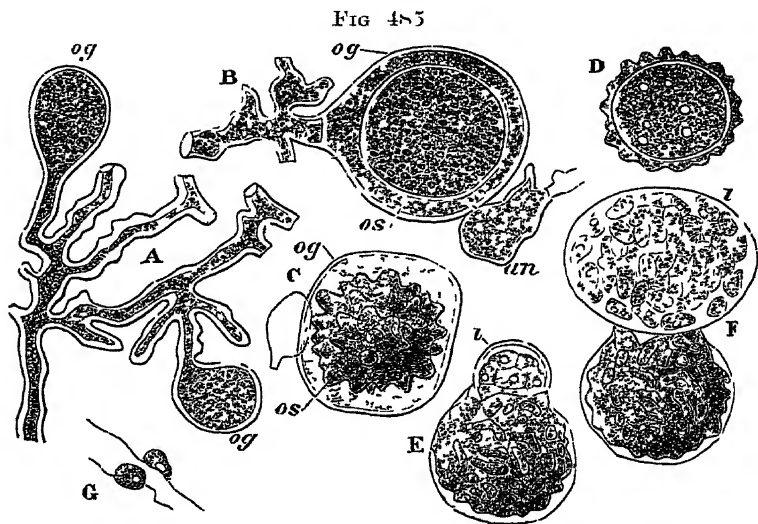


Fig 485 A Branched mycelium of *Cystopus* with young oogonia, *og*, *og*. B Portion of mycelium bearing oogonium, *og*, with the oosphere, *os*, and antheridium or pollinodium, *an*. C Mature oogonium, with *os*, the oospore. D Mature oospore. E, F Formation of swarm-spores or zoospores, *z*, from the oospores. G, G Protuded endospore. After De Bary

to coalesce with the female gamete. This form is found in many Fungi, such as *Cystopus*, and, at the other end of the scale, in the flowering plants. It is always naked, never having a cell-wall apart from that of the cell in which it is formed (*fig* 485).

The female gamete does not show so much variation. Its typical form is that of an oval or spherical mass of protoplasm, without cell-wall or cilia, and it is termed an *oosphere*. It may escape from the gametophyte, as in *Fucus* (*figs* 491 and 492), or it may remain where it is formed, and become fused there with

the male gamete which reaches it in various ways, as already described. In the Red Seaweeds it is not differentiated at any time

The process of coalescence of differentiated dissimilar gametes is known as *fertilisation*, and the product is termed an *oospore*. The same name is applied to the process in the Red Seaweeds, where no differentiated oospore results

The Gametangia

As the structures in which the spores are produced are called generally sporangia, so the term *gametangia* may be applied to those bodies in which the gametes are formed

In isogamous plants the gametangia, like the gametes, are like each other. In the plants mentioned above the gametangium is a single cell of the filament, showing no difference from any of the other cells. Sometimes the contents of the gametangium divide up into a large number of gametes (*fig* 481), in other cases the whole of its protoplasm becomes rounded up into a single one (*fig*. 482)

A similar absence of differentiation marks the gametangia of some of the heterogamous forms. Usually, however, those which give rise to antherozoids are very different from those which produce oospheres. The former are generally called *antheridia*, the latter *oogonia* or *archegonia*, the last-named being the most complex in structure

The antheridium is usually a somewhat ovoid body, composed of several cells, it is often stalked, and in some cases furnished with a kind of lid. In *Chara* it is globular and of very complex structure. In the lower plants it is unicellular in many cases, and may then only produce a single antherozoid. In certain of the Fungi it takes the form of a somewhat club-shaped branch of the mycelium, and is called a *pollinodrum* (*fig* 485, *an*). In *Salvinia* it is the apex of a tube-like outgrowth from the microspore. In the Phanerogams, where again the gametophyte springing from the microspore is a long tubular outgrowth, the antheridium is not differentiated

The gametangium producing the oospheres may be either an oogonium or an archegonium. The former is unicellular, and sometimes, as in *Volvox*, hardly distinguishable from any other cell of the plant. In other cases it is an ovoid or spherical body, often mounted on a stalk. It usually produces one oosphere, and this remains in it till fertilisation. In *Fucus* (*figs* 489-492) it

contains eight oospheres, which are released by a rupture of the oogonium wall, and come in contact with the antherozoids after their escape. In *Chara* (fig 486, s) the oogonium is surrounded by an investment of cells which enclose it, except at the apex.

In plants above the Thallophytes the gametangium is an archegonium. It is multicellular, and consists of a swollen basal portion containing the oosphere, and surmounted by a neck or

FIG 486

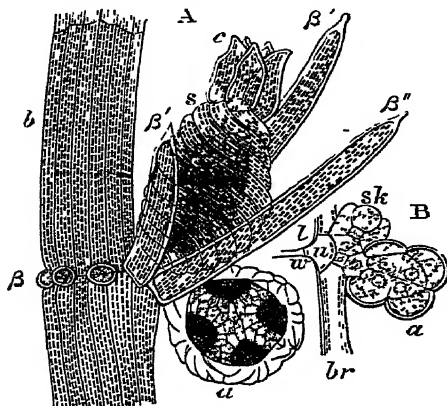


FIG 487

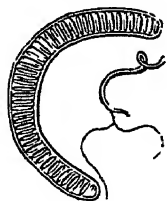


FIG 488

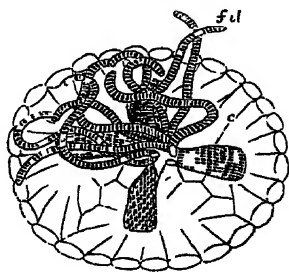


Fig 486 A Portion of the axis of *Chara fragilis*. Nucule or oogonium a Globule or antheridium b Internode c Crown or corona of nucule β Abortive leaves β', β'', β' Sterile leaflets B sk Nucule, and a, globule, both in an early stage of development u Nodal cell of leaf u Union cell between it and basal node of globule l Cavity of internode of leaf b Cells of leaf covered with cortex After Sachs—Fig 487 A portion of a filament, fl, of fig 486, in the cells of which the antherozoids are developed, with a 2-ciliated antherozoid by its side—Fig 488 A globule cut in half to show the oblong cells or manubria, c, and the septate filaments, fl. After Henfrey

narrow portion, the length of which varies in different groups of plants (fig. 493)

A good deal of difference in completeness of differentiation of the gametangium is found in different groups. Its reduction reaches its greatest extent in the Angiosperms, where the archegonium is apparently unrepresented, or represented only by the oosphere, the latter being one of the few cells to which the

gametophyte is reduced, all of which lie in the inside of the macrospore. In such Fungi as possess an oogonium (fig

FIG. 489

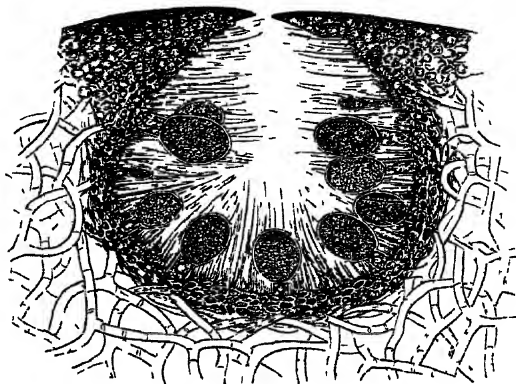


FIG. 491

FIG. 490



FIG. 492

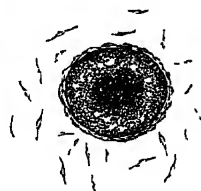


FIG. 489 Vertical section of a female conceptacle of *Fucus vesiculosus* containing oogonia and paraphyses. After Thuret. — FIG. 490 Anthedium, "a, a," on the branched hyphae of the male conceptacle. After Thuret. — FIG. 491 Oogonium with the oospheres fully separated, and disengaging themselves from their coverings. After Thuret. — FIG. 492 An oosphere without a cellulose coat being fertilised by antherozoids so as to form an oospore.

485, og) it is much reduced, and consists only of a swollen head at the end of a special branch, from which both oogonium and pollinodium arise

In the Red Seaweeds the female organ, as we have seen, contains no differentiated oosphere. It is a unicellular or multicellular structure known as a *procarp* (fig 494), and consists of a slightly swollen basal portion, prolonged upwards into a filament called the *trichogyne*, which is the part which fuses with the spermium in fertilisation. The procarp does not open like an ordinary gametangium, but when the spermium comes into contact with the trichogyne, the parts of the cell-walls which are touching become absorbed, and the contents of the spermium pass into the procarp through the opening.

FIG. 493

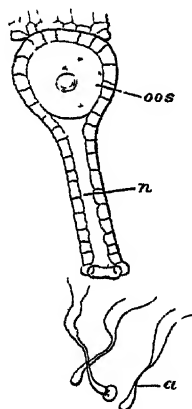


FIG. 494

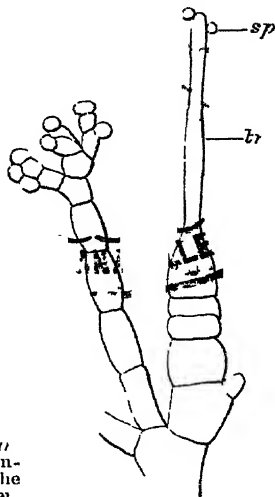


Fig. 493 Archegonium of a Liverwort (*Mitochondria*) n Neck oos Oosphere a Antherozoids — Fig. 494 Procarp of one of the Red Seaweeds tr Trichogyne sp Spermium. After Kny

A somewhat similar arrangement is described for certain of the Fungi, where it is called an *archicarp*.

The position of the gametangia varies in different plants; in some they may occur on any part of the plant body, which gives no indication of special differentiation with a view to their occurrence, in others, particularly those where the gametophyte shows complexity of structure, they are confined to particular portions which are modified in a way which suggests the sporophore or inflorescence of the differentiated sporophyte. The greatest specialisation is shown in the group of the thalloid Liver-

worts (figs. 495 and 496), where both antheridia and archegonia are borne upon special erect branches of the thallus. These differ in form: the antheridial receptacle is a body with a flattened head, on the upper surface of which the antheridia are placed in narrow pit-like depressions; the archegonia occur on the under side of a similar vertical receptacle, which shows radiating rib-like branches spreading out from the axis. The archegonia are here surrounded by modified leaves constituting the *perichætium*. A less evident specialisation is seen in the Mosses and Ferns. Generally in the former, both antheridia and archegonia occupy the summit of special leaf-crowned branches, and are surrounded by hairs of curious form known as *paraphyses* (fig. 497). In the latter the sexual organs are generally confined to a thickened

FIG 495



FIG 496

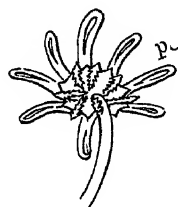


Fig 495 Portion of the thallus of *Marchantia* bearing antheridial branch ———
 Fig 496 Archegonial branch of *Marchantia* pc Perichætium

portion of the prothallium, extending centrally along the under side and known as the cushion.

In the best differentiated of the Algæ, the gametangia are foliar in their origin, and are borne upon special leaves. In *Fucus* and its allies, in which the plant body is a thalloid shoot, there are special terminal collections of them, each being formed of a number of almost closed depressions or pits, known as *conceptacles* (figs. 5 and 489). In some species each conceptacle contains both antheridia and archegonia, in others only one of the two.

In consequence of the generally slight morphological differentiation of the gametophyte as compared with the sporophyte, we find a somewhat different distribution of the reproductive organs in the two cases. As we have seen, the sporangia are usually

borne upon leaves which may be highly specialised or may be almost indistinguishable from the foliage leaves. The occurrence of axial sporangia is much less common, though, as we have seen it is met with in many very diverse groups. On the other hand, the gametangia are much more generally axial in origin, rarely being found on leaves, and then on those which are not highly specialised.

The gametophyte is seen most prominently in the lower forms, diminishing in size and degree of differentiation as we ascend the scale. The sporophyte occurs with a certain intermittence

FIG. 497

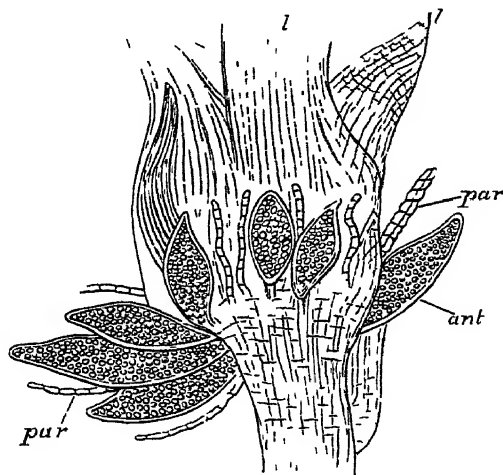


Fig. 497 Apex of fertile shoot of Moss (*Politrichum*) bearing antheridia, ant, and paraphyses, par. l Leaves of the shoot

in the lower forms, is of about the same dimensions as the gametophyte in the Mosses, and above this group assumes a preponderance and becomes the conspicuous form of the plant, while the gametophyte dwindles almost to the point of suppression.

In the Algae the gametophyte may be filiform, or take the form of a plate of cells, or assume large dimensions, showing much morphological differentiation. Often in this group the sporophyte cannot be recognised at all. Where spores (*gonidia*) occur they are generally developed upon the gametophyte. The sporophyte is represented by the so-called fruit or cystocarp in

the Red Seaweeds, and in some of the Chlorophyceæ (*Colochaete*) by a small multicellular body developed from the oospore, the cells of which all give rise to zoospores.

In the Fungi the gametophyte is always the prominent form. It bears both spores and gametes, but the latter in some cases are not functional. The parasitic habit of life of so many of these plants is attended by a general degradation of both form and structure, which especially marks the reproductive organs. In some cases the production of sexual cells by the gametophyte has disappeared. Such a gametophyte is called a *potential* one. Its true nature can only be recognised by a comparison with other forms which bear both kinds of reproductive cells. The sporophyte can be seen in such forms as *Mucor* (fig 483), where the zygospore produces a small promycelium on germination, and doubtfully in certain Ascomycetes, where it may be represented by the ascocarp. A very rudimentary condition of it is shown by *Cystopus* (fig 485), where the oospore produces a number of zoospores after a period of rest.

In the Mosses and their allies the gametophyte is still the prominent form, the sporophyte being represented by the complex sporogonium. Above the group of the Thallophyta, the nature of any phase of the plant body can be recognised by tracing its origin. The gametophyte is always the product of the germination of the spore, and where it has undergone much reduction, this is the only clue to its identity. In the series of forms above the Ferns it gradually becomes more and more closely attached to the spore, ultimately being altogether enclosed in it.

As heterospory becomes more and more prominent, the form of the gametophyte varies, that produced from the microspore being the most reduced.

In the isosporous or homosporous Ferns and in the Horsetails the gametophyte is always thalloid. In the former group each gametophyte usually produces both archegonia and antheridia, in the latter it generally gives rise to one or the other, but not to both. We have thus in the Horsetails potential though not actual heterospory. In the heterosporous Ferns the relative development of the two forms of gametophyte becomes unequal, and this difference may be seen throughout the higher plants. In *Salvinia* and in the Phanerogams the male gametophyte is a small tubular structure, produced by the outgrowth of the inner coat of the spore. In *Salvinia* it forms two cells at its apex, each giving rise to two antherozoids, in the Phanerogams even

this differentiation disappears. In *Marsilea* and *Selaginella*, the microspore gives rise to a small somewhat oval body which produces antherozooids in its internal cells.

The female gametophyte shows a gradual degeneration. In *Salvinia*, the macrospore bursts at its apex (fig 498), and the prothallium protrudes as a curiously shaped green body, the greater part of which remains within the spore. The free part bears the archegonia. In *Selaginella* and *Isoetes* the development is still more markedly endosporous. The prothallium is developed inside the macrospore (fig 499), which does not open till the former is well advanced, in some cases, indeed, until the archegonia are mature and the oosphere ready for fertilisation. In the Phanerogams the macrospore is never exposed and the prothallium or gametophyte is therefore always completely internal. In the Gymnosperms (fig 500) it still consists of a large number of cells, and forms the tissue known as the endosperm. In the Angiosperms the reduction is still more complete. When the gametophyte is mature, it consists of only a few cells or masses of protoplasm, some of which have no cell-wall (fig. 501). In the Gymnosperms the archegonia are well developed, and are much like those of *Selaginella*. In the

Angiosperms there is no archegonium, and the oosphere lies free in the cavity of the spore (fig 501, oos), being hardly distinguishable from the other cells which are near it. After fertilisation in these plants, the gametophyte undergoes a further development, the cavity of the spore becoming filled by a tissue bearing the name of *endosperm*. This is, however, hardly morphologically comparable to the tissue bearing the same name in the Gymno-

FIG 498

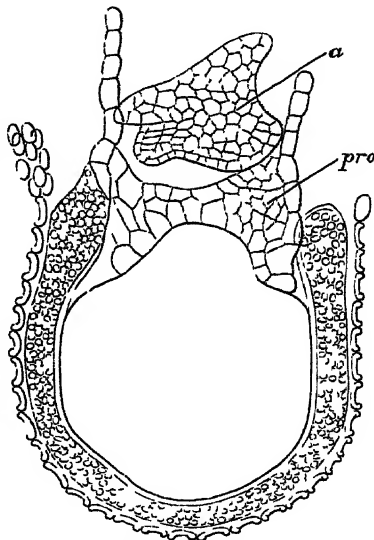


Fig 498 Gametophyte produced by the macrospore of *Salvinia* pro Prothallium bearing a, young sporophyte. After Pringheim

sperms, which is developed before differentiation of the sexual cells, and which is morphologically the same structure as the prothallium of the higher Cryptogams.

In the lower forms the sporophyte is always in its origination attached to the gametophyte, and continues to be so as long as the latter persists. The spore is, however, always detached from the sporophyte before germination. This is not the case in the Phanerogams, where from the mode of its development the macrospore always remains in the sporangium. The microspore in these plants is on the other hand always set free.

FIG. 499

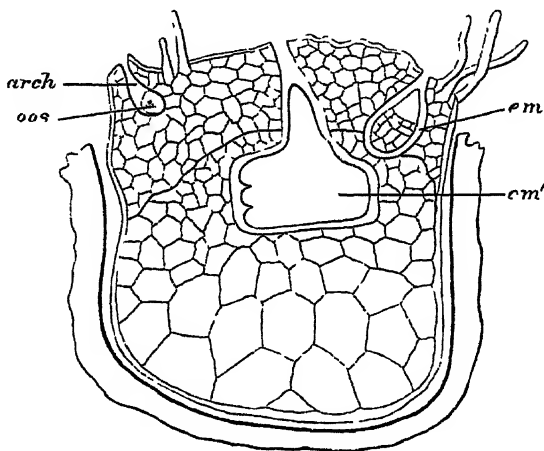


Fig. 499 Germination of macrospore of *Salvinella*. After Pfeffer.
arch Archegonium em, em' Young embryos

These peculiarities lead to two methods of fertilisation which are characteristic of the several groups. Where the spore produces the gametophyte after liberation from the sporangium, fertilisation takes place by a free-swimming antherozoid making its way to an archegonium, down the neck of which it passes to the oosphere. Where the macrospore remains attached to the plant its prothallium is inaccessible to antherozoids, and these are not developed. The microspore is carried by various agencies to the tissue either of the macrosporangium itself as in the Gymnosperms, or to the sporophyll (pistil) which bears the macrosporangium (ovule) as in the Angiosperms. The prothal-

lum produced from the microspore, which we have seen is a long tubular outgrowth known as the pollen tube, bores its way through the tissue on which it finds itself and makes its way into the interior of the macrospore, now containing its gametophyte (figs 500 and 501, *pt*). The male gamete fuses with the oosphere, which then develops into the young sporophyte. The latter after a short period of active growth becomes quiescent and remains inside the spore for a considerable period. The macrosporangium

FIG 500

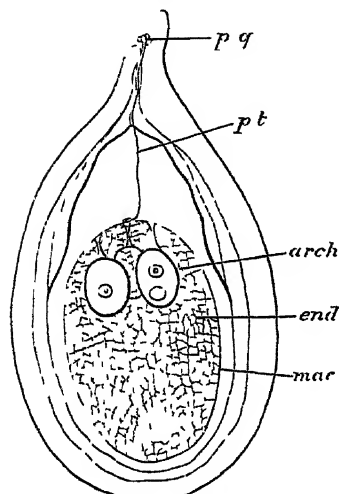


FIG 501

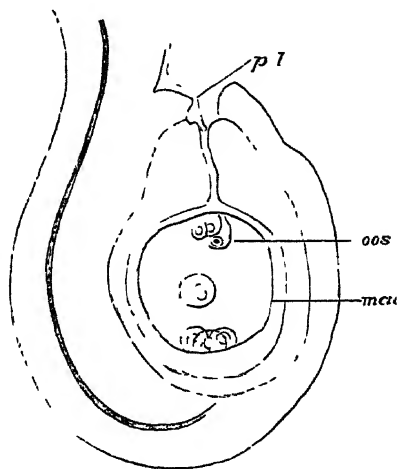


Fig 500 Macrosporangium (ovule) of *Pinus* at maturity. After Do let Port
mar Macrospore *end* Gametophyte or prothallium *arch* Archegonium
pt Pollen-grain or microspore, which has been transported to the micro-
 spyle of the ovule and has put out its prothallium, the pollen-tube, *pt*
 Fig 501 Macrosporangium (ovule) of an angiosperm *mac* Macrospore
oos Oosphere *pt* Pollen-tube

now contains the gametophyte and the young sporophyte to which the latter has given rise, and constitutes the body which is called the *seed*. No further development takes place until the latter becomes detached from the parent sporophyte.

It is evident from the history of development that only such plants can produce seeds as have all the stages of the life of the gametophyte carried out while the latter is attached to the parent sporophyte.

CHAPTER III

MORPHOLOGY OF THE FRUIT AND SEED

THE FRUIT

THE act of fertilisation not only stimulates the further development of the oosphere, but brings about changes in other parts. The gametophyte in the Angiosperms as we have seen undergoes changes, leading to the formation of the endosperm; the tissue of that part of the sporophyte in which it is embedded is also modified in various ways, especially, though not exclusively, the sporophyll or carpel in which the macrospermiangium is found. The structures resulting from this development form what is known as the *fruit*.

Fruits, though especially characteristic of the Phanerogams, are not confined to them, but the term may be extended to include such forms as the cystocarps of some of the Red Sea-weeds, in which the wall of the structure is derived from certain cells which are in the immediate neighbourhood of the sexual gamete. Rudimentary forms of fruit may also be recognised in the Mosses.

It is, however, in the group of the Phanerogams that we find the greatest variety of fruit, which we must now examine in some detail.

Changes in the Pistil during the Development of the Fruit

The fruit being generally the ovary after a certain amount of development or alteration, should correspond with the latter in its structure. This is often the case, and the fruit consists of the same parts as the ovary, only in a modified condition, thus, the walls of the ovary commonly alter in texture, and either become dry, membranous, coriaceous, woody, &c, or, on the contrary, more or less pulpy, fleshy, &c.

At other times more important changes take place during the ripening of the ovary which disguise the real structure of

the fruit. These changes either arise from the addition, abortion, or alteration of parts.

1st. The addition of parts is commonly produced by the formation of the spurious dissepiments already alluded to. In *Datura Stramonium*, for instance, we have a two-celled ovary converted into an imperfectly four-celled fruit by the formation of a spurious vertical dissepiment (figs 419 and 420), this dissepiment appears to be formed by the projection of the placentas on the two sides which meet and become united to corresponding projections from the dorsal sutures. In *Cassia Fistula*, again (fig 417), and some other fruits of a similar

FIG 502

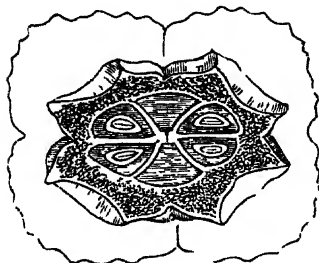


FIG 503



FIG. 504



FIG. 505

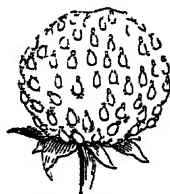


Fig 502 Transverse section of the fruit of *Petrea anguebanica*, from Lindley — Fig 503 A vertical section of a cell of the ovary of *Tribulus terrestris*, o, o, o Ovules, c Projection from the wall which are commencing to separate the ovules — Fig 504 A vertical section of a cell of the mature ovary of fruit of the same, in which the partitions, c, completely separate the seeds, a — Fig 505 Pseudocarp of the Strawberry

nature, we have a one-celled ovary converted into a many celled fruit by the formation of a number of transverse dissepiments. In *Petrea anguebanica*, a one-celled ovary is converted into a six-celled fruit (fig. 502), by an extension and doubling inwards of the placenta. In *Tribulus terrestris* the ovary is five-celled, but as it approaches to maturity, each cell (figs 503 and 504) becomes divided into as many divisions as there are seeds contained within it, in consequence of a corresponding number of projections from its walls. Other examples of the formation of spurious dissepiments producing changes in the ovary have been already mentioned (see pages 188 and 189).

2nd Other alterations are produced by the abortion or obliteration of parts, as the ovary ripens. Thus the ovary of the Oak and Hazel consists of three cells, each of which contains two ovules, but the fruit has only one cell and one seed, so that in the course of development five ovules and one cell have become obliterated. In the Birch we have an ovary with two cells, containing one ovule in each, but the fruit is one-celled and one-seeded, so that here one cell and one ovule have become obliterated. In the Ash, Horsechestnut, Elm, and many other plants, similar changes are produced in the matured ovary by the abortion or obliteration of certain parts.

3rd Other changes are caused in the ovary as it proceeds to maturity, in consequence of the alteration of parts, as, for instance, from a great development of succulent parenchyma. This is associated also with changes in the contents of the cells of the parenchyma, which become charged with sugar, vegetable acids, and various flavouring matters, giving it its peculiar character to each fruit. The pulp of the Guava, Gooseberry, Tomato, and some other fruits, in which the seeds are unbedded, appears to be produced from the placentas, and that of the Orange is of a similar nature.

Although the fruit may thus be described as consisting essentially of the mature ovary or ovaries, other parts of the flower are also frequently present, and enter into its composition. Thus, in those cases where the calyx or receptacular tube is adherent to the ovary, as in the Apple, Quince (*fig* 299), Pear, Melon, and Gooseberry, it necessarily forms a part of the fruit; in the Rose the concave thalamus (*fig* 280, 1, 1), which bears the carpels on its inner surface, and the adherent calyx-tube, *ct*, become a portion of the fruit, in the Strawberry (*fig* 303), the fruit consists of the succulent hemispherical thalamus, bearing the carpels on its convex surface, in the Acorn (*fig* 198), Hazel-nut (*fig* 199), and Filbert, it consists of pistil, calyx, and bracts, combined together, while in the Pineapple (*fig* 167), it is formed of the ovaries, floral envelopes, and bracts of several flowers, in the Fig also (*fig* 204) we have a fruit produced by a number of separate flowers enclosed in a hollow fleshy receptacle. These examples, and a number of others which might be alluded to, will show, that although the fruit consists essentially of the mature ovary or ovaries, enclosing the fertilised ovules or seeds, yet the term is also applied to whatever is combined with the ovary, so as to form a covering to the seed or seeds. All fruits which are not formed entirely out of the fertilised pistil, but which

consist in part of other portions of the flower peduncle, or other parts, are now commonly termed *spurious fruits* or *pseudocarps*.

GENERAL CHARACTERS OF THE FRUIT—The structure of the fruit resembling in all important particulars that of the ovary, the modifications which it presents, as to composition, position, &c., are described by similar terms. Thus we may have *simple* or *monocarpellary* and *compound* or *polycarpellary* fruits, as also *apocarpous* and *syncarpous* ones. Simple fruits, like simple ovaries, are normally *one-celled* or *unilocular*, while a polycarpellary fruit may have one or more cells, according as the dissepiments are absent or present, and the number of cells is indicated by similar terms to those used when speaking of the compound ovary (page 186).

The fruit like the ovary, necessarily possesses a placenta, to which the seeds are attached, and the same terms are used in describing the different kinds of placentation, as with those of the ovary; these kinds are usually more evident in the fruit.

The fruit, again, is described as *superior* or *inferior*, in the same sense as these terms are used in speaking of the ovary. Thus a fruit is inferior when it is formed from an inferior ovary, as in the Melon, Apple, Pear, and Quince (*fig.* 299), or it is superior, as in the Mignonette (*fig.* 309) and Pea (*fig.* 312), when the ovary is superior, and the calyx non adherent. Inferior fruits should be classed with pseudocarps, as they include parts of other structures than the pistil. They are generally, however, reckoned among true fruits.

The *base* of the fruit is that point by which it is united to the thalamus, the *apex* is indicated by the attachment of the style, hence in those ovaries where the style is lateral or basilar, as in many Rosaceæ (*figs.* 441 and 442), Labiatae (*fig.* 412), and Boraginaceæ (*fig.* 413), the organic apex of the fruit will be also thus situated, so that the geometrical and organic apices will then be very different.

COMPOSITION OF THE FRUIT—The fruit when perfectly formed consists of two parts, namely, the *pericarp*, and the *seed* or *seeds* contained within it. In the majority of cases, when the seeds are abortive the pericarp withers, and the fruit does not ripen. But there are many exceptions to this, thus, many Oranges and Grapes produce no seeds, but the pericarp is nevertheless fully developed; and in the Bananas, Plantains, and Bread-fruit, the pericarps develop most extensively, and become best adapted for food, when the seeds are chiefly or entirely

abortive. Generally speaking, however, the development of the seeds and pericarp proceeds together after the process of fertilisation has been effected, and then only *perfect fruit* can be formed; for although in common language we apply the term fruit in those instances where no seeds are produced, yet strictly speaking such are not fully formed fruits, but only enlarged and swollen pericarps.

Having now alluded to the seeds as a component part of the perfect fruit, we must leave their particular examination till later, and proceed to the description of the pericarp.

Pericarp.—In the majority of fruits the pericarp consists simply of the walls of the ovary in a modified state, but, when the calyx or receptacle is adherent, it necessarily presents a more complicated structure. The pericarp often exhibits three layers or regions (*fig. 535*), an external, called the *epicarp* or *exocarp*, *ep*, a middle, the *mesocarp*, *mt*, and an inner, the *endocarp*, *en*. The middle layer, being frequently of a fleshy or succulent nature, is

FIG. 506



FIG. 506. Foliaceous bladder legume of the Bladder Senna (*Colutea arborescens*).

also then termed the *sarcocarp*, while the inner layer, from its hardness in some fruits, is then called the *stone* or *putamen*.

In some cases the pericarp clearly indicates its analogy to a leaf-blade by remaining in a condition not very dissimilar to that part of a leaf folded inwards and united by its margins, as in the Bladder Senna (*fig. 506*), such a fruit is described as *foliaceous* or *leafy*.

The above remarks will be rendered more intelligible by being illustrated by a few examples taken from well-known fruits. Thus, in the Peach, Apricot, Cherry, Plum, and most other drupaceous fruits (page 244), the separable skin is the epicarp, the pulpy part, which is eaten, the mesocarp or *sarcocarp*, and the stone enclosing the seed, the endocarp or *putamen*. In the Almond, the seed is enveloped by a thin woody shell, constituting the endocarp, which is itself surrounded by a thin green layer, formed of the combined mesocarp and epicarp. In the Date the outer brownish skin is the epicarp, the thin

paper-like liver enclosing the seed is the endocarp, and the intermediate pulpy part is the mesocarp or sarcocarp. In the Walnut, the woody shell enveloping the seed, which is commonly termed the nut is the endocarp, and the green covering of this called the husk, consists of the mesocarp and epicarp combined. In the above fruits, and numerous others which might be quoted, the different layers of the pericarp are more or less evident, but in some fruits, as in the Nut, these layers become so blended, that it is difficult, if not impossible, to distinguish them. The examples of fruits now mentioned, together with those previously alluded to, will show in a striking manner the very varying nature and origin of the parts which are commonly eaten.

Sutures —In describing the structure of the carpel, we found that the ovary presented two sutures (page 182), one of which (*fig* 399, *vs*), called the ventral suture, corresponded to the union of the margins of the lamina of the carpellary leaf, and was consequently turned towards the axis or centre of the flower, and the other, *ds*, termed the dorsal suture, corresponding to the midrib of the lamina, which was directed towards its circumference. The simple fruit being formed, in most cases, essentially of the mature ovary, also presents two sutures, which are distinguished by similar names. These, like those of the ovary, may be frequently distinguished externally, either by a more or less projecting line, or by a slight furrow, thus in the Peach (*fig* 537), Cherry, Plum, and Apricot, the ventral suture is very evident, although the dorsal suture has become nearly effaced, while in the Bladder Senna (*fig* 506), Pea, and other fruits of the Leguminosæ, both dorsal and ventral sutures are clearly visible externally.

In a polycarpellary ovary with two or more cells, in which the placentation is axile, it must be evident, of course, that the dorsal sutures can alone be observed externally, as the ventral sutures of the component ovaries are turned towards, and meet in the axis of the flower, and are hence removed from view; it follows also that the number of dorsal sutures will necessarily correspond to the number of carpels of which such an ovary is formed. In a fruit presenting similar characters, we find of course a similar disposition of the sutures. When an ovary, on the contrary, is formed of the blades of two or more carpellary leaves, the margins of which are not inflected, or only partially so, and therefore one-celled, and the placentation parietal or free central, both ventral and dorsal sutures may be observed

externally alternating with each other. The fruit, which is formed in a similar manner, necessarily presents a similar alternation of the sutures on its external surface.

Dehiscence.—The pericarp at varying periods, but commonly when the fruit is ripe, either opens, so as to allow the seed or seeds to escape, or remains closed, and the seeds can then only become free by its rupture or decay. In the former case the fruit is said to be *dehiscant*, in the latter, *indehiscant*. Those fruits, such as the Nut, Cherry, Apricot, Plum, and Date, which have very hard or fleshy pericarps, are usually indehiscant.

Dehiscant fruits open in various ways.—1st By splitting longitudinally in the line of, one or both of the sutures, or at the junction of the component carpels only, or at these points as well as at the dorsal sutures. In all the above cases the pieces into which the fruit separates are called *valves* and these valves, when the fruit is normal in its structure, are either equal in number to the cells, or component carpels, or they are twice as numerous. Thus in fruits formed of a single carpel, which only open by the ventral or dorsal suture, there will be only one valve (*figs.* 510 and 511), corresponding to the one carpel, but if the carpels open by both sutures (*fig.* 512), there will be two valves. In fruits composed of several cells the valves will be equal in number to the component carpels, if the dehiscence only takes place by the dorsal suture (*figs.* 523–525), or in the line of union of the component ovaries (*figs.* 513–515), or they will be double the number, if the dehiscence takes place by both these parts. In polycarpellary one-celled fruits the valves will be equal in number to the component carpels, if the dehiscence occurs only by the ventral (*fig.* 519) or dorsal sutures (*fig.* 520), or double the number, if by both sutures. When there is a distinct axis left after the separation of the valves, this is called the *columella* (*fig.* 526, *a*). According to the number of valves, the fruit is described as *one-valved*, *two-valved*, *three-valved*, or *many-valved*. 2nd Dehiscence, instead of taking place longitudinally, or in a valvular manner, sometimes occurs in a transverse direction by which the upper part of the fruit separates from the lower like the lid from a jar or box. 3rd. It may take place in an irregular manner by little pores. We have thus three kinds or classes of dehiscence, which are called respectively—1 *Valvular*, 2 *Transverse* or *Circumscissile*, and 3 *Porous*.

1. VALVULAR DEHISCENCE.—This may be either partial or complete; thus, in *Dianthus* (*fig.* 508), *Lychnis* (*fig.* 507), and many other Caryophyllaceous plants, the dehiscence only

takes place at the upper part of the fruit, which then appears toothed, the number of teeth corresponding to that of the valves in complete dehiscence. A somewhat similar mode of partial dehiscence occurs in certain Saxifages, and in the Mignonette (*fig 509*), in the latter plant one large orifice may be observed

FIG. 507



FIG. 508



FIG. 509



FIG. 510



FIG. 511



FIG. 512

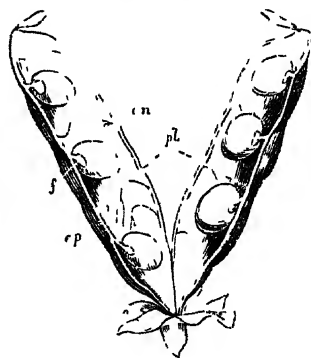


Fig 507 Fruit of *Luchnia* — *Fig 508* Fruit of *Dianthus* — *Fig 509* Fruit of *Mignonette* (*Reseda*) — *Fig 510* Follicle of *Columbine* (*Aquilegia*), dehiscing by ventral suture — *Fig 511* Follicles of *Magnolia glauca*, each dehiscing by its dorsal suture. The seeds are suspended from the fruit by long stalks or funiculi — *Fig 512* Legume of the Pea which has opened by both dorsal and ventral sutures, hence it is two-valved. *Calyx ep* Epicarp *pl* Placenta or seeds attached to the placenta by a funiculus or stalk, *f* *en* Endocarp

at the summit of the fruit at an early stage of its growth, and long before the seeds are ripe. At other times the separation of the fruit into valves is more or less complete, so that the nature of the dehiscence is at once evident. There are various modifications of these complete forms of valvular dehiscence.

Thus, in fruits which are formed of but one carpel, the dehiscence may take place by the ventral suture only, as in the Columbine (*fig* 510) and Aconite (*fig* 551); or by the dorsal suture only, as in some Magnolias (*fig* 511), or by both dorsal and ventral sutures, as in the Pea (*fig* 512), Bean, and many other Leguminous plants. This form of dehiscence is commonly known as *sutural*.

In compound fruits having two or more cells, and therefore with axile placentation, there are three principal kinds of dehiscence, which are called respectively, *septicidal*, *loculicidal*, and *septicidal*.

A. *Septicidal Dehiscence*—In this the fruit is separated into

FIG 513

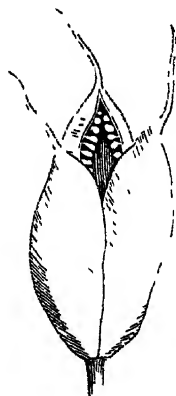


FIG. 514



FIG 515



Fig 513 Capsule of the Meadow Saffron (*Colchicum autumnale*), showing septicidal dehiscence—*Fig* 514 Diagram of septicidal dehiscence, showing the placentas and seeds carried away with the valves—*Fig* 515 Diagram of septicidal dehiscence, showing the valves breaking away from a central column formed by the union of the placentas

its component ovaries or carpels, by a division taking place between the two halves of each dissepiment (*figs* 513-515). Examples may be seen in *Colchicum* and *Rhododendron*. Here each valve corresponds to a carpel, and the valves are said to have their margins turned inwards. In this dehiscence the placentas with the seeds attached are carried away with the valves (*fig* 514), as in *Colchicum*.

B. *Loculicidal Dehiscence*—This is said to occur when each carpel opens by its dorsal suture, or through the back of the cells, the dissepiments remaining undivided (*figs* 523 and 524). Here each valve is composed of the united halves of two adjoining carpels, and the valves bear the dissepiments in the

middle. Examples may be seen in the Iris (fig 561) and Hibiscus (fig 523).

♂ *Septifragal Dehiscence*—In this form of dehiscence the carpels open by their dorsal or ventral sutures, as in loculicidal or septicidal dehiscence, and at the same time the dissepiments separate from the walls and remain united to each other and to the axis (figs 516 and 517), which in this case is generally more or less prolonged. This form of dehiscence may be seen in *Datura Stramonium* (fig 518), and *Cedrela* (fig 516). The placentas bearing the seeds are here attached to the axis,

FIG 516

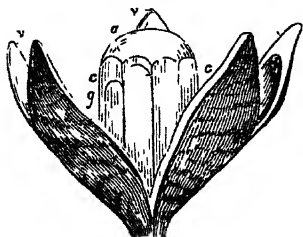


FIG 517



FIG 518



Fig 516 Capsule of *Cedrela angustifolia*, showing septifragal dehiscence *v, v*, Valves *a* Axis bearing the dissepiments, *c, c*, and seeds, *q*—
Fig 517 Diagram illustrating septifragal dehiscence—Fig 518 Capsule of *Datura Stramonium*, showing septifragal dehiscence

a, between the dissepiments, *c, c*. Septifragal dehiscence may be combined with either the loculicidal or septicidal form (figs. 515 and 525).

In polycarpellary fruits with one cell having parietal or free central placentation, we have two forms of dehiscence, these are analogous to the ordinary septicidal and loculicidal kinds just described. Thus, in compound fruits with parietal placentation, the dehiscence may take place either through the confluent margins or sutures of the adjoining carpels, so that each placenta is divided into its two lamellæ, as in the species of

Gentian (*fig* 519), in which case the dehiscence is analogous to the septicidal form, and each valve, therefore, represents one of the component carpels of the fruit, or the dehiscence may take place through the dorsal suture, as in the Heartsease (*fig* 520), in which case it is analogous to the loculicidal form of dehiscence, and each valve is composed of the adjoining halves of two carpels. These forms may be readily distinguished by the varying attachment of the placentas and seeds in the two cases, thus, in the former instance, each valve will bear the placentas and seeds on its two margins (*fig* 519), and the valves are said to be *placentiferous at their borders*, in the latter, the placenta and seeds will be attached to the centre of each valve (*fig*.

FIG. 519

FIG. 520

FIG. 521

FIG. 522

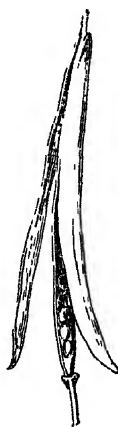


Fig 519 One celled fruit of a species of Gentian dehiscing in a septicidal manner — *Fig* 520 One celled fruit of Heartsease (*Viola tricolor*), dehiscing in a loculicidal manner — *Fig* 521 Fruit of silique of the Wallflower, showing the separation of two valves from the replum — *Fig* 522 Fruit (*ovarium*) of Celandine (*Chelidonium majus*), with the valves separating from the placentas

520), and the valves are then said to be *placentiferous in their middle*. It sometimes happens, as in the fruit of the Wallflower (*fig* 521), that the placentas bearing the seeds remain undivided, and the valves break away from them, so that they are left attached to a frame or *replum* (page 252).

In polycarpellary fruits with a free central placentation, the same forms of dehiscence occur as in those with parietal placentation, but here it is difficult in many cases to speak positively as to the nature of the dehiscence from the absence of seeds or dissepiments upon the valves. The means usually adopted in such cases is to count the number of the valves and

compare their position with the sepals or divisions of the calyx. Thus, as the different whorls of the flower in a regular arrangement alternate with one another, the component carpels of the fruit should alternate with the divisions or sepals of the calyx. If the fruit therefore separates into as many portions as there are parts or sepals to the calyx, and if these valves are then placed alternate to them, they represent the component carpels, and the dehiscence is consequently analogous to the septicidal form, if, on the contrary, the valves are equal and opposite to the sepals or divisions of the calyx, each valve is composed of the adjoining halves of two carpels, and the dehiscence is analogous to the loculicidal form. Sometimes the number of valves is double that of the calycine segments or sepals, in which case each valve is formed of half a carpel, the dehiscence of the fruit having taken place both by its dorsal and ventral sutures.

In all the above varieties of valvular dehiscence, the separation may either take place from above downwards which is by far the more usual form (*figs* 513, 516, 518, and 523); or occasionally from below upwards, as in the Celandine (*fig* 522), and universally in Cruciferous plants (*fig* 521).

In some forms of septicidal dehiscence the carpels separate without opening, as in *Scrophularia*, in which case they may afterwards open by their dorsal sutures, that is, in a loculicidal manner. In other cases, the axis is prolonged in the form of a columella or carpophore, as in the Mallow and Castor-oil Plant (*fig* 526, *a*), and in the Geraniaceæ (*fig* 527, *a*), and Umbelliferae (*fig.* 539), and the carpels which are united to it also separate without their ovaries opening. The ovaries of such carpels frequently open afterwards by their dorsal sutures (*fig* 526, *sd*). When such carpels separate with a certain amount of elasticity from the axis to which they are attached, as in some Euphorbiaceæ, they have been called *cocci* (*fig* 526, *c, c, c*). By some botanists, all carpels which thus separate from the axis in a septicidal manner are termed *cocci*, and the fruit is described as *dicoccous*, *triccous*, &c, according to their number. In certain fruits, such as those of the *Linum catharticum*, the ovaries open first by their dorsal suture, and then separate from each other in a septicidal manner.

It is better to call all fruits, the carpels of which separate from each other without opening—*schizocarps*, and term their component carpels *cocci* if there are more than two, or if only two in number, as in the Umbelliferae,—*mericarps*.

2. TRANSVERSE OR CIRCUMSCISSILE DEHISCENCE.—In this kind of dehiscence the opening takes place by a transverse fissure through the pericarp across the sutures, so that the upper part is separated from the lower like the lid of a jar or box, as in *Hyoscyamus* (fig 528) and *Anagallis* (fig 558). Sometimes the dehiscence only takes place half round the fruit, as in *Jeffersonia*, in which case the lid remains attached to the pericarp on one side, as by a hinge.

In the Monkey-pot (fig 529), the lower part of the ovary is

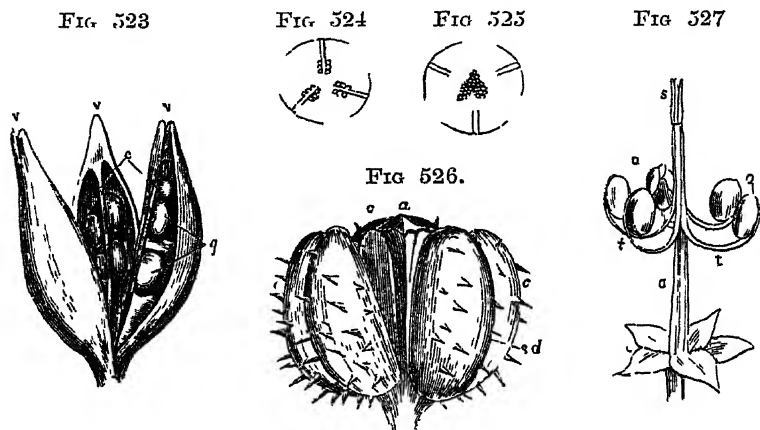


Fig 523 Capsule of a species of *Hibiscus*, dehiscing loculicidally. *v, v, v* Valves. *c* Dissepiments. *q* Seeds.—Fig 524 Diagram of loculicidal dehiscence, in which the valves carry the placenta with them.—Fig 525 Diagram of septifragal dehiscence, in which the valves have separated from the placenta, which remain as a central column with the seeds attached.—Fig 526 Fruit of the Castor-oil Plant (*Ricinus communis*), dehiscing in a septifragal manner. *c, c, c* Carpels. *a* Columella. *d* Dorsal suture where each carpel ultimately opens.—Fig 527 Fruit of a species of *Geranium*. *c* Persistent calyx. *a* Axis or carpophore from which the ovaries, *o, o*, with their styles, *t, t*, are separating. *s* Stigmas.

adherent to the tube of the calyx, and the upper portion is free; and when dehiscence takes place, it does so in a transverse manner and at the part where the upper free portion joins the lower adherent one, so that it would appear as if the adherence of the calyx had some effect in this case in producing the transverse dehiscence. Such fruits are sometimes called *operculate*, a term which is also applied by other botanists to all forms of transverse dehiscence in which the upper portion of the pericarp separates from the lower in the form of a *lid* or *operculum*.

Transverse dehiscence may also occur in fruits which are formed by a single ovary or carpel, as well as in the compound ones mentioned above. Thus, the lomenta of *Coronilla*, *Hedysarum* (fig 530), *Ornithopus*, &c, separate when ripe into as many portions as there are seeds.

3 POROUS DEHISCENCE.—This is an irregular kind of dehiscence, in which the fruits open by little pores or slits formed in their pericarp. These openings may be either situated at the apex, side, or base of the fruit, hence they are described accordingly, as *apicular*, *lateral*, or *basilar*. Examples of this kind of dehiscence occur in the Poppy, in which a number of pores are placed beneath the peltate disc to which the stigmas are attached, in the *Antirrhinum* (fig. 429), where there are two or three orifices, one of which is situated near the summit of the

FIG. 528



FIG. 529



FIG. 530



FIG. 528 Fruit of Hebanthe (*Habenaria*) with transverse dehiscence. This fruit is termed a *pyxis*.—FIG. 529 Pores of the Monkey-pot (*Lanthus ollaria*).—FIG. 530 Lomentum of a species of *Hedysarum* separating transversely into one-seeded portions.

upper cell of the ovary, and the other (one or two) in the lower; and in various species of *Campanula* (figs 531, *t, t*, and 532). In the latter the calyx is adherent to the ovary, and the pores, which have a very irregular appearance at their margins, penetrate through the walls of the pericarp formed by the adherent calyx and ovary, these pores correspond to the number of cells in the ovary, and are either situated at the sides (fig. 531, *t, t*), or towards the base (fig. 532).

KINDS OF FRUIT.—Many kinds of fruit have been described and several classifications have been proposed for them, but there is still not very great accordance among botanists upon this subject.

We have seen that in most cases the fruit arises from changes in the carpels in consequence of fertilisation. All these forms may be described as *true fruits*. In many other cases other

parts of the flower undergo similar modifications and a number of structures result, in which frequently the true fruits can be separately distinguished. The idea of the fruit which is associated with these forms is a rather conventional one, its leading features being succulence or palatability. Such fruits, originating, like the first group, from single flowers, we may speak of as *spurious fruits*. A third form also is found, in which the 'fruit' is the result of the more or less complete cohesion of a number of flowers, various parts of which, or the axis on which

FIG. 531



FIG. 532

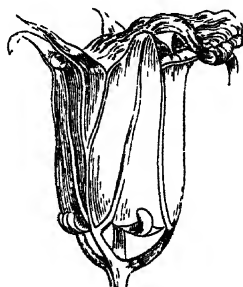


Fig. 531 Immature fruit of a species of *Campanula*. p Pericarp, s, s Pores at the sides, c, c Persistent calyx united below to the wall of the fruit so as to form a part of the pericarp.—Fig. 532 Fruit of a species of *Campanula* dehiscing by pores at its base

they are borne, have become succulent. These may be called *aggregated* or *anthocarpous* fruits.

A. TRUE FRUITS.

Of these many varieties occur, rendering a classification necessary. As there is a broad distinction possible based on the way they liberate their seeds, we may divide them into *Indehiscent* and *Dehiscent* fruits. Further division may be based on the number of carpels in each.

Indehiscent Monocarpellary Fruits

1. *The Achænum* or *Achene* is a superior, one-celled, one-seeded fruit, with a dry indehiscent pericarp, which is separable from the seed, although closely applied to it. Such fruits may be distinguished from seeds by presenting on some point of their

surface the remains of the style. This style is in some cases very evident, as in the *Anemone* (fig 533). Examples may be seen in the *Clematis* and *Anemone*, and in the plants of the orders *Labiate* and *Boraginaceæ* (fig 534). In rare cases we find a flower producing but a single achæmium.

2 *The Utricle* is a superior, one-celled, one or few-seeded fruit, with a thin, membranous, loose pericarp, not adhering to the seed, generally indehiscent, but rarely opening in a transverse manner. Examples of this kind of fruit may be seen in *Amaranthus* and *Chenopodium* (fig 536).

3 *The Caryopsis* is a superior, one-celled, one-seeded, indehiscent fruit, with a thin, dry membranous pericarp, completely and inseparably united with the seed (figs 540 and 541). This fruit resembles the achæmium, but it is distinguished by the complete union which exists between the pericarp and the seed.

FIG. 533

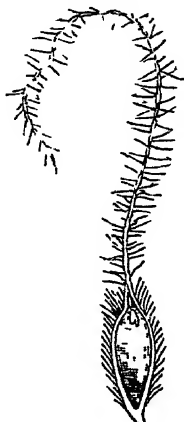


FIG. 534

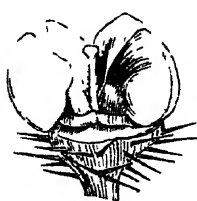


Fig 533 Vertical section of an achæmium of the Pasque flower (*Anemone Pulsatilla*). The fruit is said to be tailed in this instance in consequence of being surmounted by a feathery style — Fig 534 Achæmia of Bugloss (*Limonopsis*)

FIG. 535

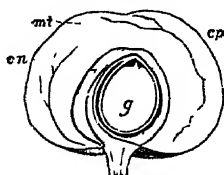


FIG. 536

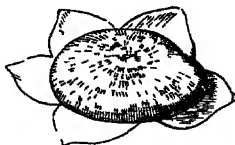


Fig 535 Vertical section of the drupe of the Cherry. *cp* Epicarp *en* Endocarp *mt* Mesocarp *g* Seed with embryo — Fig 536 Utricular fruit of *Chenopodium*, surrounded by the persistent calyx

It is, moreover, generally considered as being of a bicarpellary nature, from the presence of two or more styles and stigmas on the ovary (fig 404). It is found in the Oat, Maize, Rye, Wheat, Bailey, and generally in the Grass order. These fruits,

like the achænia, are often erroneously called seeds, but their true nature is at once evident when they are examined in their early state.

4. *The Drupe*—This is a superior, one-celled, one- or two-seeded, indehiscent fruit, having a fleshy or pulpy sarcocarp, a hard or bony endocarp, and the pericarp altogether separable into its component parts, namely, epicarp, sarcocarp, and endocarp. The drupe is sometimes called a *stone-fruit*. Examples occur in the Peach (figs 537 and 538), Apricot, Plum, Cherry (fig 535), and Olive. In the Almond the fruit presents all the characters of the drupe, except that here the sarcocarp is of a toughish texture instead of being succulent. Many fruits, such as the Walnut and Cocoa-nut, are sometimes termed drupes, but improperly so, as they are in reality compound or formed

FIG 537



FIG 538

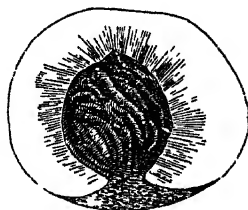


Fig 537 Drupe of the Peach — Fig 538 The same cut vertically

originally from two or more carpels or ovaries, besides presenting other characters differing from simple fruits.

5. *The Berry*—Though the berry is usually formed from a syncarpous ovary, there is one form of it which may be included here. It is a succulent fruit with a single cell in which is a single seed. This is hard and stony, and at first sight may be taken to be the same thing as the stone of the Plum. It is not so, however, as the latter is hollow and encloses the seed. In the berry the stone is the seed. This form of fruit is seen in the Date and some other Palms.

Indehiscent Polycarpellary Fruits

1. *The Cypsela*.—This differs in nothing essential from the achæmium, except in being inferior and bicarpellary. It occurs

in all plants of the order Compositæ. When the calyx is pappeo- it remains attached to the fruit, as in Salsafy and Dandelion.

2 *The Glans or Nut* is a dry, hard, indehiscent, one-celled, one- or two-seeded fruit, produced from an ovary of two or more cells, with one or more ovules in each cell, all of which become abortive in the progress of growth except one or two. The three layers constituting the pericarp of the nut are firmly coherent and undistinguishable, and the whole is more or less enclosed by a *cupule*. The Acorn (*fig. 198*), and the Hazel-nut (*fig. 199*), may be taken as examples. By some botanists the fruit of the Cocoa-nut Palm is called a nut, but it differs in its pericarp presenting a distinction into epicarp, mesocarp, and endocarp. (See *Drupe*.) Such a fruit is often described as a fibrous drupe.

3 *The Schizocarp*—This term is applied to a number of fruits which split away from the axis into pieces corresponding to the constituent carpels. They differ from dehiscent fruits in that the splitting does not liberate the seeds. The chief varieties are the following:—

The Cremocarp—An inferior, dry, indehiscent, two-celled, two-seeded fruit. The two cells, or halves, of which this fruit is composed are joined face to face to a common axis or *carpopphore*, from which they separate when ripe, but to which they always remain attached by a slender cord which suspends them (*fig. 539*). Each half-fruit is termed a *mericarp*, and the inner face the *commissure*. Each portion of the fruit resembles an achænum, except in being inferior, hence the name *diachænum* has been given to this fruit. Examples of the cremocarp as above defined are found universally in the plants of the order Umbelliferae, but in no other order.

The Samara—A superior, two- or more celled fruit, each cell being dry, indehiscent, one- or few-seeded, and having its pericarp extended into a winged expansion. Examples may be found in the Maple (*fig. 542*), Ash, and Elm. By some botanists each winged portion of such a fruit is called a samara, and thus such fruits as the Maple are considered to be formed of two united samaræ.

The Carcerule—A superior, many-celled fruit, each cell being dry, indehiscent, and one- or few-seeded, and all the cells more or less cohering by their united styles to a central axis. The common Mallow (*fig. 543*) is a good example of this fruit. In the Geranium the central axis with its adherent styles is prolonged upwards into a large beak (*fig. 527*).

The Amphisarca.—A superior, many-celled, indehiscent, many-seeded fruit, indurated or woody externally, pulpy internally. Examples, *Omphalocarpus*, *Adansonia*, *Crescentia*

When the schizocarp consists of three or more carpels which separate from each other and burst with elasticity, as in *Ricinus* (fig. 526) and *Hura crepitans* (fig. 560), it has been called a *regma*, and the constituent carpels are termed *cocci*.

4 *The Bacca or Berry* is an inferior, indehiscent, one- or

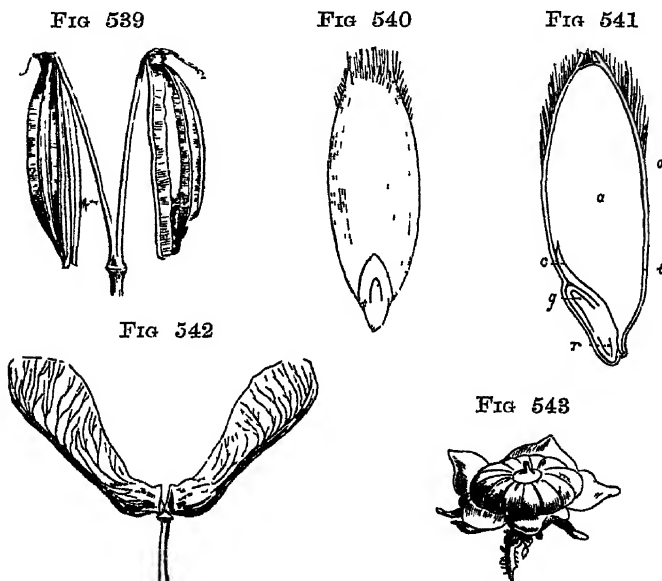


Fig 539 Cremocarp or fruit of *Angelica* — Fig 540 Caryopsis or fruit of the Nut — Fig 541 The same cut vertically *a* Pericarp *b* Integuments of the seed *c* Albumen or endosperm *d* Cotyledon *e* Germule or plumule *f* Radicle — Fig 542 Samara or fruit of the Maple — Fig 543 Carcerule or fruit of the Mallow (*Malva*)

more-celled, many-seeded, pulpy fruit (figs 544 and 545) The pulp is produced from the placentas, which are parietal (fig 544, *p*), and have the seeds, *s*, *s*, at first attached to them, but these become ultimately separated and lie loose in the pulp, *p*. Examples may be found in the Gooseberry and Currant. The name *baccate* or *berried* is applied by many botanists to any fruit of a pulpy nature, and will sometimes be used in this sense in our description of the natural orders

5 *The Pepo* is an inferior, one-celled, or spuriously three-celled (fig 547), many-seeded, fleshy, or pulpy fruit. The seeds are attached to parietal placentas, and are imbedded in pulp, but they never become loose as is the case in the berry; and hence this fruit is readily distinguished from it.

There has been much discussion with regard to the nature of the pepo. By some botanists the placentas are considered as axile, and the fruit normally three-celled, as it is formed of three ovaries or carpels, while by others the placentas are regarded as parietal, and the fruit normally one-celled, as defined above.

FIG 544

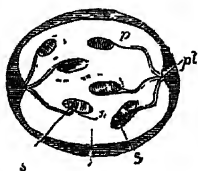


FIG 545



FIG. 547



FIG 546



FIG 544 Transverse section of a berry of the Gooseberry (*Ribes Grossularia*) *pl* Placentas *s* Seeds imbedded in pulp, *p* — FIG 545 Raceme of berries of the Red Currant (*Ribes rubrum*) — FIG 546 Nuculanum of fruit of the Vine (*Vitis vinifera*) — FIG 547 Transverse section of the pepo of the Melon *cl, cl, cl* Carpels *pl, pl, pl, pl, pl, pl* Curved placentas, sending processes, *s*, from the circumference, *c*, to the centre, and thus causing the fruit to be spuriously three celled

Those who adopt the first view believe that each placenta sends outwards a process towards the walls of the fruit, and that these processes ultimately reach the walls and then become bent inwards and bear the seeds on the curved portions. If these processes remain the fruit is three-celled, if, on the contrary, they become absorbed, it is only one-celled, and the placentas are spuriously parietal. According to the view here adopted, the placentas are parietal, and send processes inwards which meet in the centre, and thus render the fruit spuriously three-celled, or, if these are afterwards obliterated, or imperfectly formed, the fruit is one-celled. This fruit is illustrated by the

Melon, Gourd, Cucumber, Elaterium, and other Cucurbitaceæ. The fruit of the Papaw-tree resembles a pepo generally, except in being superior.

6 *The Nuculanum*—This fruit, of which the Grape (*fig* 546) may be taken as an example, does not differ in any important characters from the berry, except in being superior.

7. *The Hesperidium* is a superior, many-celled, few-seeded, indehiscent fruit, consisting of a separable pericarp, formed of the epicarp and mesocarp combined together (*fig* 548, *p, c*), and having an endocarp, *d*, projecting internally in the form of membranous partitions, which divide the pulp into a number of portions or cells, which are easily separated from each other. This pulp, as already noticed is either a development of succulent parenchyma from the inner lining of the ovary generally, or from the placentas only. The seeds, *s, s*, are nu-

FIG 548

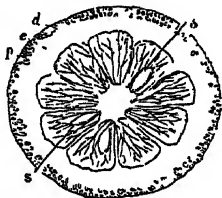


FIG. 549

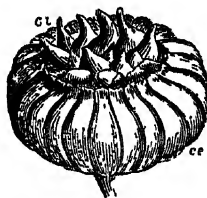


FIG 548 Transverse section of the fruit of the Orange (*Citrus aurantium*)
p Epicarp *c* Mesocarp *d* Endocarp *s, s* Seeds.—FIG 549 Abnormal development of the fruit of the Orange, in which the carpels, *ce*, and *cl*, are more or less distinct instead of being united.

bedded in the pulp, and attached to the inner angle of each of the portions into which the fruit is divided. The fruits of the Orange, Lemon, Lime, and Shaddock are examples of the hesperidium. It is by no means uncommon to find the carpels of this fruit in a more or less separated state (*fig* 549), and we have then produced what are called 'horned oranges,' 'fingered citrons,' &c, and the fruit becomes somewhat apocarpous instead of entirely syncarpous.

8 *The Tnyma* is a superior, one-celled, one-seeded, indehiscent fruit, having a separable fleshy or leathery rind, consisting of epicarp and mesocarp, and a hard two-valved endocarp, from the inner lining of which spurious dissepiments extend so as to divide the seed into deep lobes. It differs but little from the ordinary drupe, except in being formed from an originally compound ovary. Example, the Walnut.

9. *The Balausta* is an inferior, many-celled, many-seeded, indehiscent fruit, with a tough pericarp. It is formed of two rows of carpels, one row being placed above the other, and surrounded by the calyx, the seeds being attached irregularly to the walls or centre. The Pomegranate fruit (*fig 567*) is the only example.

Dehiscent Monocarpellary Fruits

1. *The Follicle* — This is a superior, one-celled, one- or many-seeded fruit, dehiscing by one suture only, which is commonly the ventral, and is consequently one-valved (*fig 510*). By the latter character it is known at once from the legume, which opens by two sutures, and is two-valved, in other respects the

FIG 550



FIG 551



FIG 552

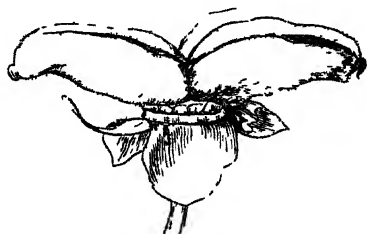


Fig 550 Follicles of the Columbine (*Aquilegia*) — *Fig 551* Follicle, of the Aconite (*Aconitum*) — *Fig 552* Follicles of the Peony (*Paeonia*)

two fruits are alike. In *Magnolia glauca* (*fig 511*), and some other species of *Magnolia*, the follicle opens by the dorsal suture instead of the ventral. Examples of the follicle occur in the Columbine (*fig 550*), Hellebore, Larkspur, and Aconite (*fig 551*), in all of which plants the fruit is composed of three or more follicles placed in a whorled manner on the thalamus, in the *Asclepias*, Periwinkle, and Peony (*fig 552*), where each flower generally forms two follicles; and in the *Liriodendron* and *Magnolia* (*fig 511*), where the follicles are numerous, and arranged in a spiral manner on a more or less elongated thalamus. It rarely happens that a flower produces but a single follicle, this, however, sometimes occurs in the Peony and in other plants. The two follicles of *Asclepias* are more or less united at their bases, and the seeds, instead of remaining attached to the ventral

suture, as is the case in the true follicle, lie loose in the cavity of the fruit. This double fruit has therefore by some botanists received the distinctive name of *Conceptaculum*.

2. *The Legume or Pod* — This is a superior, one-celled, one- or many-seeded fruit, dehiscing by both ventral and dorsal sutures, so as to form two valves, and bearing its seed or seeds on the ventral suture. Examples occur in the Pea (*fig* 512), Bean, Clover, and most plants of the order Leguminosæ, which has derived its name from this circumstance. The legume assumes a variety of forms, but it is generally more or less convex on its two surfaces and nearly straight, at other times, however, it becomes spirally contorted so as to resemble a screw (*fig* 555), or a snail twisted, as in some species of *Medicago* (*fig* 554), or

FIG 553

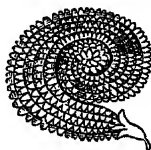


FIG 555.



FIG 556



FIG 554



Fig 553 Coiled-up legume of *Scorpiurus sulcata* — *Fig* 554 Snail-like legume of *Medicago orbiculata* — *Fig* 555 Spiral or screw-like legume of Lucerne (*Medicago*) — *Fig* 556 Lomentum of a species of *Ailanthus*

it is coiled up like a caterpillar, as in *Scorpiurus sulcata* (*fig* 553); or curved like a worm, as in *Casalpinia coriaria*, or it assumes a number of other irregular forms. Certain deviations from the ordinary structure of a legume are met with in some plants; thus, in *Astragalus* (*fig* 422), and *Phaca* (*fig* 423), it is two-celled, in consequence of the formation of a spurious dissepiment, which in the first plant proceeds from the dorsal suture, and in the latter from the ventral. At other times a number of spurious horizontal dissepiments are formed, by which the legume becomes divided into as many cells as there are seeds, as in *Cassia Fistula* (*fig* 417). Another irregularity also occurs in the latter plant, the legume being here indehiscent, but the two sutures are clearly marked externally. Other indehiscent

legumes are also met with, as in *Arachis* and *Pterocarpus*, in which there is sometimes no evident mark of the sutures externally such legumes will, however, frequently split into two valves like those of a pea, if a little pressure be applied as in the ordinary process of shelling peas

3 *The Lomentum*.—This is a kind of legume which is contracted in a moniliform manner between the seeds, as in *Hedysarum* (fig 530), *Ornithopus*, and *Acacia Sophora* (fig 556). It is sometimes called a *lomentaceous legume*. This fruit, together with the legume, characterises the plants of the Leguminosæ. When the lomentum is ripe, it commonly separates into as many pieces as there are contractions on its surface (fig. 530), or it remains entire (fig 556), in the latter case the seeds are sepa-

FIG 557



FIG 558

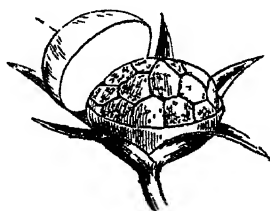


FIG 559



Fig 557 Spiral capsule of a species of *Helictes* — Fig 558 Pyxis of Pimpernel (*Anagallis*) — Fig 559 Capsule of a species of *Scrophularia*, dehiscing in a septicidal manner

rately enclosed in cavities which are formed by the production of as many internal spurious dissepiments as there are external contractions

Dehiscent Polycarpellary Fruits

1. *The Capsule* is a superior, one- or more-celled, many-seeded, dry, dehiscent fruit. The dehiscence may either take place by valves, as in *Colchicum* (fig 513) and *Datura* (fig. 518), or by pores, as in the Poppy and *Antirrhinum* (fig 429); or *transversely*, as in the Pimpernel (fig 558) and Henbane (fig 528), or only *partially*, as in Mignonette (fig 509), *Dianthus* (fig. 508), and *Lychnis* (fig. 507). When the capsule dehisces transversely the fruit has received the distinctive name of *Pyxis*. The capsule is either one-celled as in the Mignonette (fig 509),

Heartsease (fig 520), and Gentian (fig 519), or two-celled as in the *Scrophularia* (fig 559); or three- or more-celled, as in *Colchicum* (fig 518), and *Datura* (fig 518). It assumes various

FIG 560

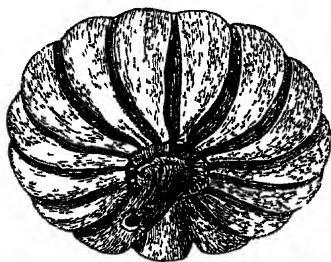


FIG 561

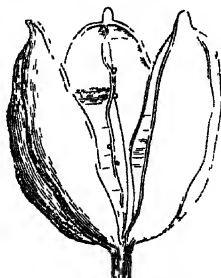


FIG 560 Fruit of Sandbox-tree (*Hura crepitans*). It is composed of fifteen carpels which separate from the axis when ripe, and burst with great force — FIG 561 Interior capsular fruit (*diploetema*) of the *Iris*, opening in a loculicidal manner

forms, some of which are remarkable, as in *Helicteres* (fig. 557), where it is composed of five carpels twisted spirally together.

The capsule is a very common fruit, and is found almost universally in many natural orders, as *Papaveraceæ*, *Caryophyllaceæ*, *Primulaceæ*, *Scrophulariaceæ*, *Gentianaceæ*, &c, &c

When a fruit resembles the ordinary capsule in every respect, except that it is inferior, as in the species of *Iris* (fig 561) and *Campanula* (figs 581 and 582), it has received the name of *Diploetema*. In the natural orders we shall describe such a fruit as *capsular*

2 *The Siliqua* is a superior, spuously two-celled, many-seeded, long, narrow fruit, dehiscing by two valves separating from below upwards, and leaving the seeds at-

FIG 562



FIG 563

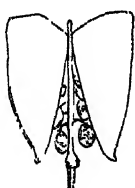


FIG 562 Fruit or siliqua of the Wallflower, showing the separation of the two valves from the replum — FIG 563 Silicle of Shepherd's Purse (*Capsella*)

tached to two parietal placentas, which are commonly connected together by a spurious vertical dissepiment, called a *replum* (fig 562). The placentas are here opposite to the lobes of the stigma,

instead of alternate, as is usually the case. Examples of this fruit occur in the Wallflower (*fig* 562), Stock, Cabbage, and a large number of other Cruciferae.

The silqua is sometimes contracted in the spaces between the seeds, like the lomentum, in which case it is indehiscent, as in *Raphanus sativus*, and is then called a *lomentaceous silqua*.

3 *The Silcula*—This fruit resembles the silqua in every respect except as to its length, and in usually containing fewer seeds. Thus the *silqua* may be described as long and narrow, the *silcula* as broad and short. Examples occur in the Shepherd's Purse (*fig* 563) and Scumy-grass.

The silcula and silqua are the characteristic forms of fruit in the natural order Cruciferae.

4. *Diplogia*.—This is the only kind of inferior fruit which presents a dry dehiscent pericarp. It has already been stated under the head of Capsule, that the diplogia differs in nothing from it, except in being inferior. The species of *Iris* (*fig* 561) and *Campanula* (*figs* 531 and 532) are examples of this fruit. The diplogia may open either by pores (*fig.* 531), valves (*fig.* 561), or transversely (*fig* 529) like the ordinary capsule. In the latter case, as with the true capsule with transverse dehiscence, the fruit is called a *Pyris*.

B SPURIOUS FRUITS

1 *The Etærio*—There are several varieties of this form. In all of them the bulk of the fruit is composed of an enlarged receptacle or thalamus on which the carpels are seated. In *Ranunculus* the true fruits, which are achenes, are placed on a dry convex receptacle which is not much enlarged; in the Strawberry the receptacle is enlarged, convex, succulent, and brightly coloured, in *Potentilla* and some other Rosaceae, it is enlarged but not succulent.

In the fruit of the Rose the achæna, instead of being placed upon an elevated thalamus, as in the ordinary etærio, are situated upon a concave thalamus, to which the calyx is attached (*fig* 280, *r, r*). This modification of the ordinary etærio has been made a separate fruit by some botanists, to which the name of *Oynarhodon* has been given. A similar kind of fruit also occurs in *Calycanthus*.

In the Raspberry (*fig* 565) and Bramble, we have a kind of etærio formed of a number of little drupes, or drupels as these

small drupes are sometimes termed, crowded together upon a dry thalamus.

2 *The Pome* is an inferior, indehiscent, two- or more-celled, few-seeded, fleshy fruit; the carpels of which are papery, cartilaginous, or bony, and surrounded by a fleshy mass, which is generally considered to be formed of the adherent tube of the calyx. Some botanists, however, regard the fleshy portion as consisting of the enlarged end of the flower-stalk, in which the true carpels are imbedded. Examples may be seen in the Apple (fig 566), Pear, Quince (fig 299), Medlar, and Hawthorn.

FIG. 564

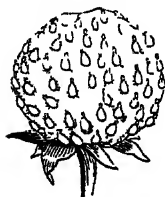


FIG. 565



FIG. 566

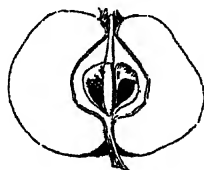


FIG. 567

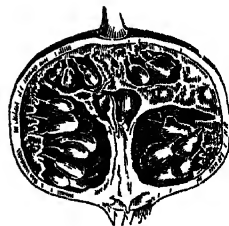


Fig 564 Etalio of the Strawberry, consisting of a swollen succulent receptacle on which are a number of achenes.—Fig 565 Etalio of the Raspberry.—Fig 566 Vertical section of the pome or fruit of the Apple (*Pyrus Malus*).—Fig 567 Vertical section of the balausta or fruit of the Pomegranate.

C. ANTHOCARPOUS OR AGGREGATED FRUITS

These fruits have been termed *Anthocarpous*, as they consist not only of the mature carpels of several flowers united, but also usually of the bracts and floral envelopes in combination with them, that is to say, the whole inflorescence is blended to form the fruit. They have been also called *Multiple*, *Aggregate*, and *Collective fruits*, some botanists also term them *Infructescences* or *Confluent fruits*. Such fruits have been likewise termed *polythalamus*, to distinguish them from fruits formed by single flowers, which are called *monothalamus*. The following have received distinctive names—

1 *The Cone* is a more or less elongated fruit, composed of a number of indurated scales, each of which bears one or more

naked seeds (*fig* 475) on its inner surface. This fruit is seen in the Scotch Fir (*fig* 568), Larch, Hemlock Spruce (*fig*. 218), and a great many other plants of the order Coniferae, which derives its name from this circumstance. There are two views as to the nature of the indurated scales, thus, by some botanists they are regarded as carpels spread open, each representing a female flower, by others, as bracts. Other botanists regard the cone as the *spurious fruit* or *pseudocarp* of a single flower, and not as a collection of fruits, as here described. Some, again, make no distinction between a Cone and a Strobilus (*see* Strobilus). The cone in its young state has been described already as a form of inflorescence.

2 *The Galbulus*.—This fruit is but a modification of the Cone; differing in being more or less rounded in form instead of some-

FIG 568

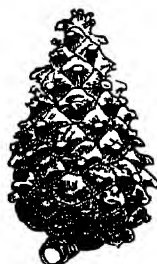


FIG. 570

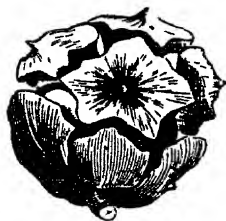


FIG 571



FIG 569



Fig 568 Cone or fruit of the Scotch Fir — *Fig* 569 Galbulus or fruit of the Juniper (*Juniperus communis*) — *Fig* 570 Galbulus or fruit of the Cypress (*Cupressus sempervirens*) — *Fig* 571 Fruit of the Yew (*Taxus baccata*), surrounded by bracts at the base

what conical, and in having the heads of the scales much enlarged and peltate in form, with the seeds on their under surface. It is seen in the Cypress (*fig* 570) and in the Juniper (*fig* 569). In the latter the scales become fleshy, and are united together into one mass, so that it somewhat resembles at first sight a berry, but its nature is at once seen by examining the apex, when three radiating lines will be observed corresponding to the three fleshy scales of which the fruit is formed, and which are here but imperfectly united.

In the Yew (*Taxus baccata*) (*fig*. 571) and other plants belonging to the Taxaceae, an order closely allied to the Coniferae and Cycadaceae, the so-called fruit is in reality not a fruit

at all, as it consists simply of a naked seed, surrounded, except at the apex, by a fleshy cup or aile.

The Cone must be carefully distinguished from Cone-like fruits, such as those of the *Magnolia* (fig 511) and *Lurodendron*. The latter are not collective fruits at all, but they consist of the mature carpels or follicles of a single flower, placed upon an elongated thalamus.

3. *The Strobilus or Strobile*—The fruit of the Hop (*Humulus Lupulus*) (fig 219) is by some botanists considered as a kind of Cone with membranous scales, to which the name of *Strobilus* or *Strobile* has been given, but the strobile differs essentially from the cone, in having its seed distinctly developed in a carpel placed at the base of each scale. We distinguish this fruit, therefore, as a distinct kind, under the above name. It should

also be noticed that the term *Strobilus* is frequently employed as synonymous with Cone.

4. *The Sorosis* is a collective fruit, formed of a number of separate flowers firmly coherent into a fleshy or pulpy mass with the floral axis upon which they are situated. Examples of this may be seen in the Pineapple (fig 167), where each square portion represents a flower, and the whole is surmounted by a crown of empty bracts. The

FIG. 572



FIG. 573



Fig 572 Sorosis or fruit of the Mulberry (*Morus nigra*)—Fig 573 Fruit (sorus) of the Raspberry (*Rubus idaeus*)

Bread-fruit and Jack-fruit are other examples of the sorosis. The Mulberry (fig 572) may be also cited as another well-known fruit, which presents an example of the sorosis. At first sight, the Mulberry appears to resemble the Raspberry (fig. 573), Blackberry, and other fruits of the genus *Rubus*, but in origin and structure the latter are totally different. Thus, as already noticed in speaking of the Euterio, the Raspberry and other fruits of the genus *Rubus* consist of a number of drupes crowded together upon a dry thalamus, and are all the produce of a single flower. But in the Mulberry, on the contrary, each rounded portion of which the fruit is made up is derived from a flower, the calyx of which has become succulent and united to the ovary, the combination of a number of flowers in this case therefore forms the fruit, while in the Raspberry the fruit is produced by one flower only.

5. *The Syconus* is a collective fruit, formed of an enlarged and more or less succulent receptacle which bears a number of separate flowers. The Fig (*fig. 204*) is an example of a syconus. In this, the flowers are almost entirely enclosed by the enlarged hollow pear-shaped receptacle, and what are commonly called seeds are in reality one-seeded fruits resembling achenia. The *Dorstenia* (*fig. 205*) is another example of the syconus, although it differs a good deal from that of the Fig in its general appearance, thus the receptacle is less succulent, and only slightly concave except at its margins, so that the separate fruits are here readily observed.

All the more important fruits which have been named and described by botanists have now been alluded to, but in practice only a few are in common use—such as the Legume, Drupe, Achene, Follicle, Caryopsis, Siliqua, Silicle, Capsule, Nut, Pome, Berry, and Cone. This has arisen partly from the same names having been given by different botanists to totally distinct kinds of fruits, and partly from botanists in many cases preferring to describe a particular fruit according to the special characters it presents. It is, however, much to be regretted that a comprehensive arrangement of accurately named and well-defined fruits should not be generally adopted, as it cannot be doubted that, if such were the case, it would be attended with much advantage, and save a good deal of unnecessary description and repetition.

The Seed

We have seen that the seed is a structure which is peculiar to the group of Phanerogams or flowering plants, and have discussed the causes which lead to its formation. There are several morphological features of importance connected with it which still remain for us to consider. As the seed is the body produced from the ovule in consequence of fertilisation, we see that its structure must be comparable with that of the latter. It is, however, much more complex because it contains the whole of the gametophyte of the plant together with the new sporophyte to which the latter gives origin. The latter is the body commonly called the embryo. We may have thus three distinct generations represented in the seed. 1. The remains of the original macrosporangium, or the nucellus of the ovule with its integuments. The latter are frequently the only part of this generation remaining, the nucellus itself having disappeared. 2. The gametophyte, consisting of a mass of tissue called the

endosperm developed inside the spore or embryo-sac. This again is frequently only represented very slightly, or it may be altogether absent, having been absorbed by the embryo. The new sporophyte, or embryo, which may be small and embedded in the endosperm, or may be large, filling the embryo-sac, having absorbed the endosperm during its development. If the nucellus has been absorbed during the growth of the embryo-sac, the seed may present to view only the embryo, enveloped in the modified original integuments of the macrosporangium or ovule.

Like the ovule, the seed is either attached directly to the placenta, in which case it is described as *sessile*, or by means

of a stalk, called the *funiculus* or *funicle* (figs. 512, f, and 574, f), when it is said to be *stalked*, its point of attachment is also termed the *hilum*. The position of this hilum may be commonly seen on seeds which have separated from the funiculus or placenta, by the presence of a scar, or a difference of colour to the surrounding integument. The hilum varies much in size, being sometimes very minute, or in other cases extending for some distance over the surface of the outer coat of the seed, as in the Horse-chestnut and Calabar Bean. The hilum, as in the ovule, indicates the base of the seed. The chalaza is well seen in the Orange, and commonly in all anatropous seeds, in which case also the raphe may be generally noticed forming a projection on the face of the seed.

The micropyle also, although smaller and less distinct than in the ovule, owing to a contraction of the surrounding parts, may be frequently observed on the seed (fig 574, m), its detection is of some practical importance, as the radicle, r, of the embryo, with a few exceptions, is directed towards it.

The terms *orthotropous*, *campylotropous*, *anatropous*, &c, are applied to seeds in the same sense as to ovules, consequently the hilum, chalaza, and micropyle have the same relations to one another in the seed as in the ovule. Thus the hilum and chalaza are contiguous to each other in an orthotropous seed, and the micropyle is removed to the opposite end, in

FIG 574

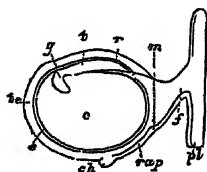


Fig 574 The seed of a Pea, with its integuments removed on one side. pl Placenta f Funiculus rap Raphe ch Chalaza m Micropyle t Testis e Endosperm c Cotyledons g Gemmule or plumule, r, radicle, s, stalk or tigellum between the plumule and radicle.

a campylotropous seed the hilum and chalaza are also near to each other, and the micropyle is brought round so as to approach the hilum, in an anatropous seed the chalaza is placed at the opposite end to the hilum, while the micropyle and hilum are close together, in amphitropous seeds the chalaza and micropyle are both removed from the hilum, and placed transversely to it

Almost all seeds, like ovules, are more or less enclosed in a pericarp, the only real exceptions to this law being in Gymnospermous plants, as already referred to under the head of the OVULE, and hence the division of Phanerogamous plants, as already noticed, into the Gymnospermia and the Angiospermia. The means of distinguishing small fruits from seeds have been also already described

In describing the position of the seed in the fruit, the same terms are used as already mentioned under the head of the OVULE. Thus a seed may be *erect*, *inverse*, *pendulous*, *suspended*, *ascending*, &c. The number of seeds contained in the fruit or pericarp is also subject to variation, and corresponding terms are employed accordingly, thus we say the fruit or pericarp is *monospermous*, *bispermous*, *trispermous*, *quadrispermous*, *quinespermous*, *multispermous*, &c; *one-seeded*, *two-seeded*, *three-seeded*, *four-seeded*, *five-seeded*, *many-seeded*, &c

Having now alluded to those characters which the seed possesses in common with the ovule, we pass to the consideration of its special characteristics

FORMS OF SEEDS.—Seeds vary much in form, and, in describing these variations, similar terms are employed to those used in like modifications of the other organs of the plant. Thus a seed may be rounded, as in the *Nasturtium* (fig. 575), ovoid, as in *Polygala* (fig. 585); oval, as in *Asclepias* (fig. 581), ob-ovoid, as in *Delphinium* (fig. 577), reniform, as in *Papaver* (fig. 576), &c, &c

STRUCTURE OF THE SEED.—1 THE INTEGUMENTS OR COATS.—There are two seed-coats or integuments. These have been variously named by botanists, the terms employed in this volume, and those most frequently used, are, *testa* or *episperm* for the outer coat, and *tegmen* or *endopleura* for the inner

a. *Testa*, *Episperm*, or *Outer Coat* (fig. 574, *te*).—This integument may be either formed of the primine of the ovule only, or, as is more frequently the case, by the combined primine and secundine. The testa in some seeds, as in those of

Acanthodrum, has in addition a coating of hair-like cells which are pressed closely to the surface of the seed by a layer of mucilage, hence if such seeds be moistened with water, the mucilage which confines them becomes dissolved, by which the hairs are set free, and then branch out in every direction.

Colour, Texture, and Surface of the Testa.—In colour, the testa is generally of a brown or somewhat similar hue, as in the Almond, but it frequently assumes other colours, thus, in some Poppies it is whitish or yellowish, in others black, in Indian Shot (*Canna*) and Pæony also somewhat black, in the Arnatto and Barricari (*Adenanthera*) red, in French Beans and the seeds of the Castor-oil plant beautifully mottled, and various other tints may be observed in the seeds of different plants

The testa also varies in texture, being either of a soft nature,

FIG 575

FIG 576.

FIG 577

FIG 578

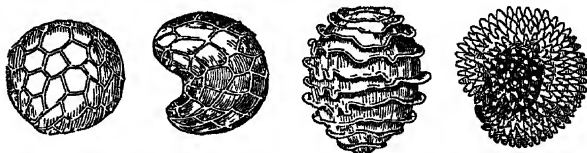


FIG 575 Rounded seed of the Watercress (*Nasturtium officinale*). The testa is reticulated or netted.—FIG 576 Reniform seed of the Poppy (*Papaver*), with an alveolate or pitted testa.—FIG 577 Obovoid seed of the Larkspur (*Delphinium*), the testa of which is marked with ridges and furrows.—FIG 578 Seed of Chickweed (*Stellaria*), the testa of which is tuberculate.

or fleshy and succulent, or more or less spongy, or membranous or coriaceous, or, when the interior of its cell-walls is much thickened, it assumes various degrees of hardness, and may become woody, crustaceous, &c

The surface of the testa also presents various appearances, and is often furnished with different appendages. Thus it may be smooth, as in *Adenanthera*, or wrinkled, as in *Nigella*; striated, as in Tobacco, marked with ridges and furrows, as in *Delphinium* (fig 577), netted, as in *Nasturtium* (fig. 575); alveolate or pitted, as in the Poppy (fig. 576), tuberculated, as in Chickweed (fig 578), spiny, as in the Mulberry, &c. The testa of some seeds is also furnished with hairs, which may either cover the entire surface, as in the various species of *Gossypium* where they constitute the material of so much value called Cotton, and in the Silk-cotton tree (*Bombax*), or

they may be confined to certain points of the surface, as in the Willow (*fig* 582), *Asclepias* (*fig.* 581), and *Epilobium* (*fig* 587). In the latter cases the tufts of hairs, thus confined to certain points of the testa, constitute what is called a *coma*, and the seed is said to be *comose*.

FIG 579



FIG 580

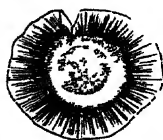


FIG 581

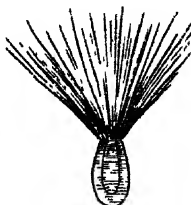


FIG 582



FIG 579 Seed of a species of *Pinus*, with a winged appendage, *w* — FIG 580 Minigrite or bordered seed of Sandwort (*Arenaria*) — FIG 581 Comose oval seed of *Asclepias* — FIG 582 Comose seed of a species of Willow (*Salix*)

Other seeds, again, have winged appendages of various kinds, thus, in the Sandwort (*fig* 580), the testa is prolonged, so as to form a flattened margin to the seed, which is then described as *marginate* or *bordered*, while in the seeds of the *Pinus* (*fig* 579, *w*), *Catalpa*, *Bignonia*, *Swietenia*, *Moringa*, &c, the testa forms wings, and the seed is said to be *winged*. These winged seeds must be carefully distinguished from samaroid fruits, such as the Ash, Elm, and Maple (*fig* 542), where the wing is an expansion of the pericarp instead of the testa. In like manner, hairy seeds should not be confounded with pappose fruits, such as those of the Compositæ, Dipsacæ (*fig.* 294), and Valerianacæ (*fig.* 298), where the hairy processes belong to the calyx.

Beneath the testa, in anatropous seeds (*figs* 583, *r*, and

FIG 583

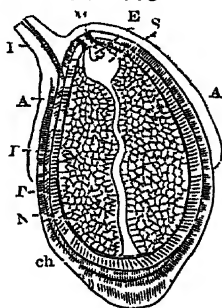


FIG 583 Young anatropous seed of the White Water-lily (*Nymphaea alba*) cut vertically. F Funiculus. A, A Gelatinous aril. I Integuments of the seed. N Nucellus. R Raphie. M Micropyle. E Embryo sac. ch rudimentary embryo.

574, *rap*), and the modification of these termed *amphitropous*, the raphe or vascular cord connecting the hilum with the chalaza is found. Its situation is frequently indicated by a projecting ridge on the surface of the seed, as in the Orange, while at other times it lies in a furrow formed in the substance of the testa, so that the surface of the seed is smooth, and no evidence is afforded externally of its position.

The testa is also usually marked externally by a scar indicating the hilum or point by which it is attached to the funiculus or placenta. The micropyle, as already noticed, may be also sometimes seen on the surface of the testa, as in the Pea (*fig. 574, m*), but in those cases where no micropyle can be detected externally, its position can only be ascertained by dissection, when it will be indicated by the termination of the radicle, this being directed, as already alluded to, towards the micropyle. In some seeds, as in the Asparagus, the situation of the micropyle is marked by a small hardened point, which separates like a little lid at the period of germination this has been termed the *embryotegua*.

On removing the testa we observe the raphe, which frequently ramifies over the inner coat, and where it terminates it constitutes the *chalaza* (*figs 588, ch*, and 574, *ch*). The structure and general appearances of these different parts have been already described.

b *Tegmen, Endopleura, or Internal Coat* (*fig 574, e*) —The inner membrane or coat of the seed is essentially parenchymatous like the outer. In many cases, however, it seems to be altogether wanting, which probably arises from its complete incorporation or adherence to the testa. Sometimes the embryo-sac in the ripe seed remains embedded in the substance of the nucellus (*fig 588*), and remains in the form of a bag or sac which envelops the embryo, as in the Nymphæacæ, Piperacæ, and Zingiberacæ.

When clearly distinguishable the tegmen is generally of a soft and delicate nature, although sometimes it is of a fleshy character either entirely or in part. It is usually of a whitish colour, and more or less transparent. This layer is closely applied to the kernel of the seed, which it accompanies in all its foldings and windings, and in some cases even dips down into the latter, and thus divides it more or less completely into a number of parts, as in the Nutmeg and Betel-nut (*fig 589, p*).

Arillus.—Besides the two integuments described above as those that are usually found in all seeds, we occasionally find

on the surface of some seeds an additional integument, which is generally of a partial nature (*fig. 583, A, A*), and to which the name of *arillus* or *aril* has been given. No trace of this structure is present in the ovule till after the process of fertilisation has taken place. Two kinds of aril have been described, which have been respectively called the *true arillus*, and the *false arillus* or *arillode*. These have an entirely different origin, thus, the *true arillus* arises in a somewhat similar manner to the coats of the ovule already described, that is to say, it makes its first appearance around the hilum in the form of an annular process derived from the placenta or funiculus, and gradually proceeds upwards, so as to produce a more or less complete additional covering to the seed, on the outside of the testa. This arillus is well seen in the *Nymphaea* (*fig 583, A, A*)

FIG 584

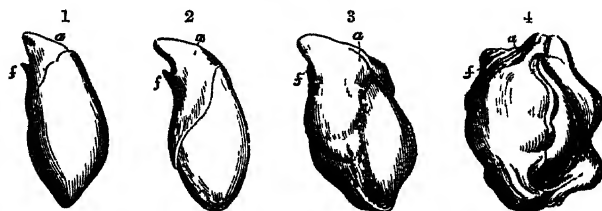


Fig 584 Progressive development of the arillode in the seed of the Spindle-tree (*Euonymus*) *a* Arillode *f* Funiculus, 1, represents the youngest seed, 2 and 3, the progressive development of the arillode, 4, the oldest and fully developed seed

But the *false arillus* or *arillode* arises from the micropyle, and seems to be a development or expansion of the exostome, which gradually extends itself more or less over the testa to which it forms a covering, and after thus coating the seed, it may be even bent back again so as to enclose the micropyle. The gradual development of the arillode in the seed of the Spindle-tree is well shown in *fig 584*. In the Nutmeg, the arillus originates from both the hilum and the micropyle, it forms a scarlet covering to the testa, and is commonly known in commerce, when dried and preserved, under the name of *mace*.

Caruncules or Strophioles—These are small irregular protuberances which are found on various parts of the testa. They are always developed, like the arillus and arillode, subsequent to fertilisation, and are accordingly not found in the ovule. In

the Milkwort (*fig. 585*) they are situated at the base or hilum of the seed, in the Asarabacca (*fig 586*) and Violet on the side, in a line with the raphe, while in the Spurge they are placed at the micropyle. Some writers consider these caruncles as forms of the aril, of which they then distinguish four varieties, namely —1 The *true arillus*, as in *Nymphæa* (*fig 583, A, A*), 2 The *arillode* or *micropylar arillus*, as in *Euonymus* (*fig 584*), 3 The *raphian arillus*, as in *Asarum* (*fig 586*), and 4 The *chalazal arillus*, as in *Epilobium* (*fig 587*), where the tuft of hairs at one end of the seed is regarded as an aril. Other writers again partially adopt these views, and define the caruncles as little protuberances growing from the raphe, and therefore originating independently of the funiculus or micro-

FIG 585



FIG 586

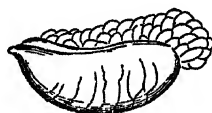


FIG 587

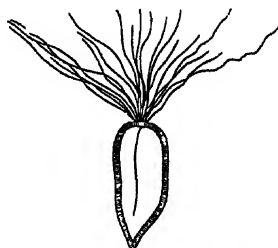


Fig 585 Ovoid seed of Milkwort (*Polygala*), with a caruncle at its base or hilum — *Fig 586* Seed of Asarabacca (*Asarum*), with a caruncle on the side, which is called by some a raphian arillus — *Fig 587* Section of the comose seed of *Epilobium*. The tuft of hairy processes is sometimes called a chalazal arillus

pyle, hence the caruncles of Milkwort and Spurge would be regarded as true or false arils according to their respective origins, and the appendages of Asarabacca and Violet would be true caruncles. Other botanists again, instead of using the two terms strophioles and caruncles as synonymous with each other, apply the former term only when the processes proceed from the hilum, and the latter to those coming from the micropyle. Altogether, there is a great difference of opinion among botanists as to the application of the terms caruncles and strophioles.

2 THE KERNEL (*fig 583, N*) — We have seen that the substance of the seed is morphologically very complex in its nature. We may or may not have the substance of the nucellus or part of it remaining. In the seed this, when present, has received the name of the *perisperm*. We have

next the embryo-sac or macrosperme. In this there may be a solid mass of tissue, known as the *endosperm*, being part of the gametophyte. Embedded in the endosperm is the body produced by the development of the fertilised oosphere, which is called the *embryo*. In other cases the embryo, by absorbing the nourishment contained in the endosperm, obliterates the latter and comes to occupy the whole interior of the embryo-sac. Then the kernel of the seed consists of the embryo or young sporophyte, which in rare cases is surrounded by a layer of perisperm, but is generally only covered by the integuments.

To the tissue which thus sometimes remains and forms a solid mass round the embryo, the name of *albumen* has been commonly applied, but it is preferably designated as the *perisperm* or *endosperm* according to its origin as described above. Both *endosperm* and *perisperm* may be seen in the *Nymphæa* (figs 583 and 588). The general name of *albumen* will be alone usually employed in future in this work, as it is the one best understood, and so long as we recollect its origin and nature, the adoption of such a name can lead to no confusion.

From the above considerations it will be evident that the kernel of the seed may either consist of the embryo alone, as in the Bean and Pea (fig 574); or of the embryo enclosed in *albumen*, as in the Poppy (fig 601), Pansy (fig 600, *al*), Oat (fig. 541, *a*), and *Nymphæa* (fig 588). We have two parts, therefore, to describe as constituents of the kernel, namely, the albumen and the embryo.

a. *Albumen, Endosperm, Perisperm*.—Those seeds which have the embryo surrounded by albumen, that is, by either endosperm or perisperm, or both, are said to be *albuminous*, while those in which it is absent are *exalbuminous*. The amount of albumen will in all cases, as described above, be necessarily in inverse proportion to the size of the embryo.

The cells of the albumen contain various substances, such as starch, albuminoids, oily matters, &c, and thus act as reservoirs of nutriment for the use of the embryo during the process of germination. The varying contents of the cells, together with certain differences in the consistence of their walls, cause the albumen to assume different appearances in ripe seeds, and thus frequently to afford good characteristic marks of different seeds. Thus, the albumen is described as *mealy*, *starchy*, or *farinaceous*, when its cells are filled with starch-granules, as in the Oat and other Cereal grains; it is said to be *fleshy*, as in the Barberry and Heartsease, when its

walls are soft and thick, or when its cells contain oil-globules, as in the Poppy and Cocoa-nut, it is *oily*, or when the cells are soft, and chiefly formed of mucilage, as in the Mallow, it is *mucilaginous*, and when the cells are thickened by layers of a hardened nature, so that they become of a horny consistence, as in the seeds of the Vegetable Ivory Palm and Coffee plant, the albumen is described as *horny*. These different kinds of albumen are frequently more or less modified in different seeds by the admixture of one with the other.

Generally speaking, the albumen also presents a uniform appearance throughout, as in the seeds of the Vegetable Ivory Palm, but at other times it is more or less separated into dis-

tinct compartments by the folding inwards of the tegmen as already described. In the latter case the albumen is said to be *ruminated*, as in the Nutmeg and Betel-nut (*fig 589, p*)

FIG 588



Fig 588 Vertical section of the seed of the White Water-lily, showing the embryo enclosed in the remains of the embryo-sac, and on the outside of this the perisperm surrounded by the integuments

b The *Embryo* is the rudimentary plant, and is therefore necessarily present in all true seeds, it is developed from the *fertilised oosphere* in the embryo-sac. The embryo being the rudimentary sporophyte, it is necessarily the most important part of the seed, and it contains within itself, in an undeveloped state, all the essential parts of which the latter is ultimately composed. Thus we distinguish, as already noticed, three parts in the embryo, namely, a *radicle*, *plumule*, and one or more *cotyledons*. These parts may be readily recognised in many seeds, thus in the

embryo of the Lime (*fig 590*), the lower portion, *r*, is the radicle, from which the root is developed, the two expanded lobed bodies above, *c, c*, are the cotyledons; and between these the plumule is placed. In the Pea, again (*fig 16*), the two fleshy lobes, *c, c*, are the cotyledons, between which there is situated a little axis, *t* (*trigellum*), the upper part or bud-like portion of which is the plumule, *n*, and the lower part, *r*, the radicle. Plants which thus possess two cotyledons in their embryo are called *Dicotyledonous*. But there are plants in which, as already noticed, there is commonly but one cotyledon present (*figs 541, c*, and *591, c*), and which are, accordingly, termed *Monocotyledonous*. In rare instances, however, a monocotyledonous embryo has more than

one cotyledon, and then the second cotyledon alternates with the first, instead of being opposite to it, as is invariably the case with the two cotyledons of Dicotyledonous plants. By the difference thus presented in the embryos of Angiosperms, as already described in the first chapter, these plants are divided into two great classes, called respectively *Dicotyledons* and *Monocotyledons*. In the Gymnosperms there are often several cotyledons, so that the embryo is described as *polycotyledonous*.

(a) *The Monocotyledonous Embryo*.—The parts of the monocotyledonous embryo are in general by no means so apparent as those of the dicotyledonous. Thus the embryo at first sight, externally, usually appears to be a solid undivided body of a cylindrical or somewhat club-shaped form, as in *Triglochin* (fig. 598), but if this be more carefully examined, a little slit, *f*, or

FIG 589.

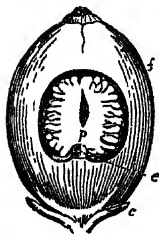


FIG 589 Vertical section of the fruit of the Betel-nut Palm (*Areca Catechu*) *c* Remains of perianth *f* Pericarp *p* Ruminated albumen of the seed *e* Embryo—FIG 590 Embryo of the Lime-tree (*Tilia europæa*) *c, c* Cotyledons, each with five lobes arranged in a palmate manner ? Radicle

FIG 590



chink, will be observed on one side near the base, and if a vertical section be made parallel to this slit, a small conical projection will be noticed, which corresponds to the plumule. and now, by making a horizontal section, the cotyledon will be noticed to be folded round the plumule, which it had thus almost entirely removed from view, only leaving a little slit corresponding to the union of the margins of the cotyledon, this slit thus becomes an external indication of the presence of the plumule. In fact, the position of the cotyledon thus rolled round the plumule is similar to that of the sheaths of the leaves in most Monocotyledonous plants, which thus, in a similar manner, enclose the young growing parts of the stem.

In other monocotyledonous embryos the different parts are more manifest, thus, in many Grasses, as, for instance, the Oat (fig. 541), the cotyledon, *c*, only partially encloses the

plumule, *g*, and radicle, *r*; and thus these parts may be readily observed in a hollow space on its surface (*fig. 540*)

The inferior extremity of the radicle is usually rounded (*fig. 593, r*), and it is through this point that the rootlets, *r*, burst in germination (*fig. 591*). The radicle is usually much shorter than the cotyledon, and generally thicker and denser in its nature, but in some embryos it is as long, or even longer, in which case the embryo is called *macropodous*.

(b) *The Dicotyledonous Embryo*—These embryos vary very much in form. most frequently they are more or less oval, as in the Bean and Almond (*fig. 594*), where the embryo consists of two nearly equal cotyledons *c*, between which is enclosed a

FIG 591

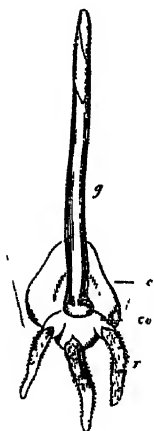


FIG 592



FIG 593



Fig. 591 Germinating embryo of the Oat *r* Rootlets coming through sheath, *co* *c* Cotyledon *g* Young stem—*Fig. 592* Vertical section of a mature carpel of a species of *Triglochin* *p* Pericarp *s* Stigma *g* Seed *r* Raphe *f* Funiculus *c* Chalazal—*Fig. 593* Embryo of *Triglochin* *r* Radicle *f* Stk corresponding to the plumule *c* Cotyledon From Jussieu

small axis or *tigellum*, *t*, the upper part of which, *g*, is the *plumule*, and the lower, *r*, the *radicle*. The *tigellum* upon germination appears as a little stalk, supporting the cotyledons, and hence it is also termed the *hypocotyledonary axis*.

In by far the majority of cases the two cotyledons are nearly of equal size, as in the Pea (*fig. 16, c, c*), but in some embryos, as in *Trapa*, some *Hiræas*, &c (*fig. 595, c', c*), they are very unequal. Again, while the cotyledons usually form the greater part of the embryo (*fig. 16, c, c*), in other instances, as in *Pekea butyroza* (*fig. 597, c*), they form but a small portion. In *Carapa* (*fig. 596*), again, the two cotyledons become united more or less completely into one body, so that the embryo appears to be

monocotyledonous, but its nature is readily ascertained by the different position of the plumule in the two cases; thus, in the monocotyledonous embryo the plumule is situated just below the surface (*fig. 541, g*); but here (*fig. 596*), the plumule, *g*, is between the cotyledons. The cotyledons are sometimes altogether absent, as in *Cuscuta*

(c) *The Polycotyledonous Embryo*.—In the Gymnosperms, as already mentioned, there are often several cotyledons, and this may either occur as an irregular character, or as a regular condition, as in many Coniferae (*fig. 598, c*), where we frequently find six, nine, or even fifteen, hence such embryos have been termed *polycotyledonous*. In all cases where the number of

FIG 594

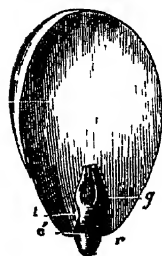


FIG 595

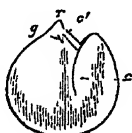


FIG 596



FIG 597



Fig 594 The embryo of the Almond (*Prunus Amygdalus*), from which one of the cotyledons has been removed. *c* The cotyledon which has been left. *r* Radicle. *g* Plumule. *t* Tigellum. *c'* Scar left by the removal of the other cotyledon.—*Fig 595* Vertical section of the embryo of a species of *Illice*. *c* Large cotyledon. *c'* Small cotyledon. *g* Plumule. *r* Radicle.—*Fig 596* Vertical section of the embryo of *Carapa guianensis*, showing the almost complete union of the cotyledons, the line, *c*, only dividing them. *r* Radicle. *g* Plumule.—*Fig 597* The embryo of *Pekea butyrosa*. *t* Large tigellum. *c* Rudimentary cotyledons.

cotyledons is thus more than two, they are arranged in a whorl (*fig. 598, c*). *Taxus*, the Yew tree, has only two cotyledons.

When no albumen is present in the seed the cotyledons are usually thick and fleshy, as those of the Bean and Almond (*fig. 594*), in which case they are termed *fleshy*, in albuminous seeds they are thin and leaf-like, as in the Lime (*fig. 590, c, c*), when they are said to be *foliaceous*. The foliaceous cotyledons are frequently provided with veins, and stomata may be also sometimes observed on their epidermis, but these structures are rarely to be found in fleshy cotyledons. Fleshy cotyledons serve a similar purpose to the albumen, by acting as reservoirs

of nutritious matters for the use of the young plant during germination; hence, when the albumen is absent, the cotyledons are generally proportionately increased in size

The cotyledons of Dicotyledonous plants are commonly sessile, and their margins are usually entire, but exceptions occur to both these characters; thus, in *Geranium molle* (fig 599, *p*) they are petiolate, while in the Lime (fig 590, *c, c*) they are distinctly lobed, and in the Geranium (fig 599, *c*) they are also somewhat divided or lobed at their ends. They also vary in their relative positions to each other. Generally they are placed parallel, or face to face, as in the Almond (fig 594), Pea (fig 16), and Bean, but they frequently depart widely from such a relation, and assume others similar to those already

described in speaking of the venation of leaves and the aestivation of the floral envelopes. Thus each of the cotyledons may be either *reclinate*, *conduplicate*, *convolute*, or *circinate*. These are the commoner conditions, and in such instances both cotyledons are either folded or rolled in the same direction, so that they appear to form but one body, or in rare cases they are folded in opposite directions, and become *equitant* or *obvolute*, or other still more complicated arrangements may occur.

The position of the radicle in relation to the cotyledons is

also liable to much variation. Thus the radicle may follow the same direction as the cotyledons, or a different one. In the former case, if the embryo be straight, the radicle will be more or less continuous in a straight line with the cotyledons, as in the Pansy (fig 600, *r*), if, on the contrary, the embryo is curved, the radicle will be curved also (fig 601), and sometimes the curvature is so great that a spiral is formed, as in *Bumelia* (fig 602). In the latter case, where the direction of the cotyledons and radicle is different, the latter may form an acute, obtuse, or right angle to them, or be folded back to such an extent as to lie parallel to the cotyledons, in which case the radicle may be either applied to their margins, as in the Wall-flower (fig 604, *r*), when the cotyledons are said to be *accumbent*;

FIG 598



FIG 599

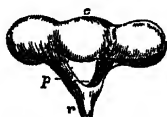


FIG 598 The so called polycotyledonous embryo of a species of *Pinus*, beginning to germinate. *c* Cotyledons. *r* Radicle. *t* Tigellum. — FIG 599 The embryo of *Geranium molle*. *c* Cotyledons, each of which is somewhat lobed, and furnished with a petiole, *p*. *r* Radicle.

or against the back of one of them, as in *Isatis* (fig 603, *r*), when they are termed *incumbent*

Relation of the Embryo to the other Parts of the Seed, and to the Fruit—In the first place with regard to the albumen. It must necessarily happen that when the albumen is present, the size of the embryo will be in the inverse proportion to it, thus in Grasses (fig. 541, *a*) we have a large deposit of albumen and but a small embryo, while in the Nettle (fig. 605) the embryo is large and the albumen very small. The embryo may be either external to the albumen (figs 541 and 608), and thus in contact with the integuments, as in Grasses, in which case it is described as *external*, or it may be surrounded by the albumen on all sides, except on its radicular extremity, as in the Pansy or Heartsease (fig 600), when it is *internal*.

FIG 600

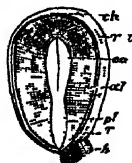


FIG 601



FIG 602



Fig 600 Vertical section of the seed of the Pansy or Heartsease. *h* Hilum *pl* Embryo with its radicle, *r*, and cotyledons, *co* *ch* Chalaza *al* Albumen *ra* Raphe. The embryo is erect or homotropous.—Fig 601 Vertical section of the seed of the Poppy, with the embryo slightly curved in the axis of albumen.—Fig 602 Vertical section of the seed of *Rumex*, showing its spiral embryo

The embryo is said to be *axile* or *axial* when it has the same direction as the axis of the seed, as in Heartsease (fig 600, *pl*) ; or when this condition is not complied with, it is *abaxile* or *eccentric*, as in *Rumex* (fig 602, *pl*) In the latter case, the embryo is frequently altogether on the outside of the albumen, and directly below the integuments, as in *Mirabilis Jalapa* (fig 607, *e*) and *Lychnis* (fig. 608, *emb*), when it is described as *peripheral*

We have already observed that the radicle as a general character is turned towards the micropyle (fig 606, *r*), and the cotyledonary extremity is then directed to the chalaza, *ch*. Some apparent exceptions to these relative positions occur in the Euphorbiaceæ and a few other plants ; but such are merely accidental deviations arising from certain trifling irregularities in the course of the development of the parts of the seed

While the relation of the radicle and cotyledonary portion is thus seen to be generally constant, it must necessarily happen, from the varying relation which the hilum bears to the micropyle and chalaza, that its relation to the radicle and cotyledonary portion of the embryo must also vary in like manner. Thus in an orthotropous seed, as *Rumex* (fig 606), the chalaza and hilum coincide with each other, and the radicle is then turned towards the apex of the seed, and the cotyledonary portion to the chalaza and hilum, in this case the embryo is said to be *antitropous* or *inverted* (figs 476 and 606). In an anatropous seed, as Heartsease (fig 600), where the micropyle is contiguous to the hilum, *h*, and the chalaza, *ch*, at the

FIG 603



FIG 604

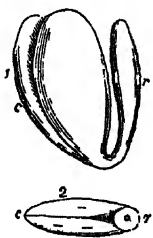


Fig. 603 Embryo of the Wood (*Isatis tinctoria*) 1 Undivided 2 Horizontal section c Cotyledons r Radicle — Fig 604 Embryo of the Wallflower (*Cheiranthus Cheiri*) 1 Undivided 2 Horizontal section r Radicle c Cotyledons

opposite extremity, the radicle, *r*, will point towards the hilum or base of the seed, and then the embryo is said to be *erect* or *homotropous*. In a campylotropous seed, where the chalaza and micropyle are both near to the hilum, as in *Lycinus* (fig 608), the two extremities of the embryo, which in such cases is generally peripheral, become also approximated, and it is said to be *amphitropous*. Thus, when we wish to know the direction of the embryo, by ascertaining the position of the hilum, chalaza, and micropyle, it is at once evident

We have now lastly to explain the different terms which are in use to express the relations which the embryo bears to the cavity or cell in which it is placed. We have already described the terms used in defining the position of the seed to the same cavity (see page 259), which we found might be either erect, inverse, suspended, pendulous, ascending, or horizontal, in the same sense as previously mentioned when speaking of the ovule (page 212). But as regards the radicle this is said to be *superior* or *ascending*, as in the Nettle (fig 605, *r*) and *Rumex* (fig 606, *r*), when it is directed towards the apex of the cell or pericarp; *inferior* or *descending* when it points to the base, *centripetal* if turned inwards towards the axis or centre, and

centrifugal when it is turned towards the sides. The above relations of the embryo to the other parts of the seed and to

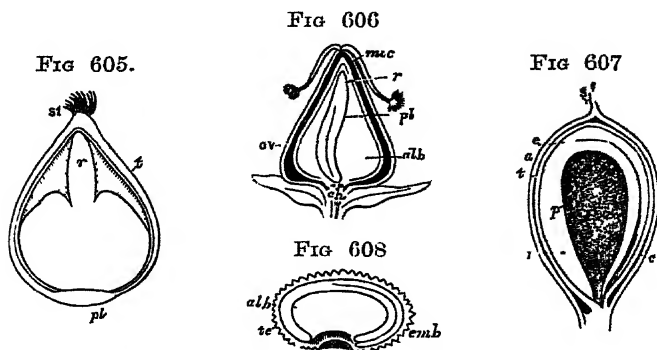


FIG 605 Vertical section of the fruit of the Nettle, containing a single seed. *i* Integuments of the seed. *pl* Placenta. *r* Radicle. *st* Stigma. — FIG 606 Vertical section of the fruit and solitary erect orthotropous seed of the Dock (*Rumex*). *ov* Pericarp. *muc* Micropyle. *pl* Embryo which is inverted or antitropous, and turned towards one side of the albumen. *alb* *ch* Chalaza. *r* Radicle. — FIG 607 Vertical section of the carpel of *Misabilis Jalapa*, containing one seed. *a* Pericarp. *s* Style. *e* Peripheral embryo with its radicle, *i*, and cotyledons, *c*. *p* Albumen. *i* Integuments of the seed. — FIG 608 Vertical section of the seed of *Lychmis dioica*. *te* Integuments. *emb* Embryo on the outside of the albumen, *alb*. The embryo is amphitropous.

the cavity or cell in which it is placed, are sometimes of much practical importance

BOOK II.

ANATOMY OF PLANTS.

CHAPTER I

THE VEGETABLE CELL

IF we study the life-history of the simplest or the most complex plant with which we can become acquainted, we find that at some time or other in its existence it is found in the form of a minute portion of jelly-like substance, in some cases motile, in others incapable of locomotion. The gametes which give rise to

the form we have described as the sporophyte are such little naked masses. In the lowest plants, such as *Ulothrix* (fig 609), these are ovoid bodies, furnished with long narrow appendages, by means of which they swim actively about in water. The zoospores of many other Algae are similar in structure. The jelly-like

substance of which they are composed is capable of carrying on all the processes of their life, and is, in fact, the *living substance*, it is called *protoplasm*. Many of the small reproductive bodies already described differ from these free-swimming organisms in having the protoplasm clothed by a thin almost structureless membrane which the living substance forms round itself. We have in these two parts, one living, the other non-living. All such structures are known as *cells*.

When one of these cells has existed for a time, it becomes

FIG 609

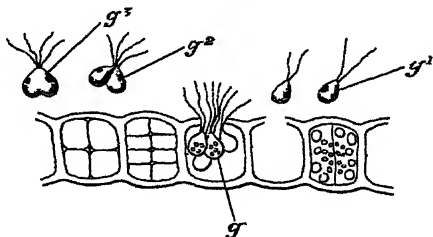


Fig 609 Part of a filament of *Ulothrix* from which the gametes, *g*, are escaping. *g*¹ Free gamete *g*², *g*³ Gametes conjugating.

septated into two by the formation of a partition wall of the same substance as the membrane which clothes it, the septum being formed by the protoplasm in the same way as the original membrane. Usually the two cells arising from such septation remain connected with each other; each in turn gives rise to another in the same way, and by the continuation of this process we get a mass made up of a number of cells. These structural units are not, however, completely distinct, for the protoplasm of each is in connection with that of its neigh-

bour by delicate filaments which penetrate the septa, or cell-walls, so that the living substance of such a mass is organically continuous throughout, being supported by the membranes which it has formed, which constitute indeed a kind of skeleton.

A section through such a mass shows the appearance of a number of chambers, each occupied by a portion of the living substance. It needs a very high magnification to distinguish the connecting threads or strands, which are of extreme tenacity (*figs* 610 and 611). In general, we may say then that a plant is built up of an aggregation of such cells. Some plants do not always form the dividing septa, so that in them we have many pieces of protoplasm, or *protoplasts*, connected closely

with one another, and having only a common membrane or cell-wall surrounding the whole. Others form relatively few septa, so that each division of the plant-body contains many protoplasts. Usually each protoplast occupies a separate chamber or cell. In the higher forms subsequent changes in the character of the septa give rise to very different appearances in the cells, the latter showing great differences in size and degree of development. In all cases, however, they arise in the manner described, by the activity of the protoplasm.

FIG 610

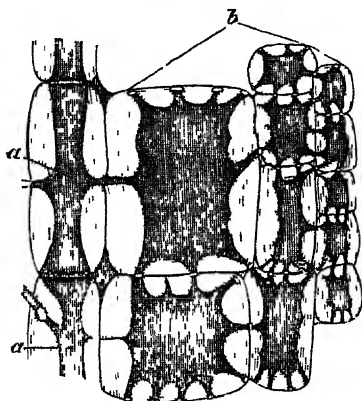


Fig 610 Semi diagrammatic longitudinal section of an old and stout portion of *Ceratium rubrum*, showing continuity between the protoplasmic contents of the axial or central cells, *a, a*, at their ends, and laterally with the cortical cells, *b, b*, by protoplasmic threads, and also that of the cortical cells *inter se* by threads radiating from the central mass in each cell. After T. Hick.

We can thus see that the living substance is the essential part of the cell, and all other structures found in connection with it are only subordinate to the requirements of the protoplasm.

In the simplest forms, each protoplast discharges all the vital processes of the plant. As, however, complexity of the plant body increases, there may be traced a division of this work, particular protoplasts taking up one, others another, duty. Thus some are particularly concerned in nutrition, others in reproduction, and so on. This division of labour is the clue to the differences of structure and appearance which we find in different parts of the plant mass, cells being modified in connection with the work

FIG. 611

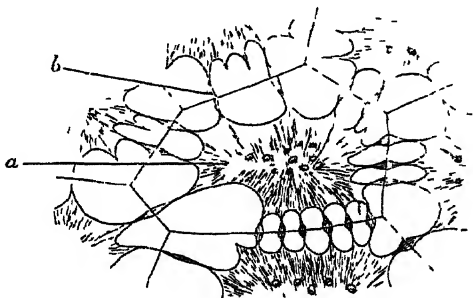


Fig. 611 Continuity of the protoplasm of contiguous cells of the endosperm of a Palm seed (*Bintuck*). *a* Contracted protoplasm of a cell. *b* A group of delicate protoplasmic fibrils passing through a pit in the cell-wall (Highly magnified, after Gardiner)

which ultimately falls to their share. Thus all differentiation of structure is to be traced to division of labour.

In the older parts of plants we find the cells consisting of the wall alone, the protoplasm having disappeared. Such cells are, of course, not living.

It is most convenient to study first the vegetable cell as it exists in a portion of the higher plants, such as the younger part of a stem or root. If we cut a section of such a structure we find the cells all alike and all presenting the following features: 1. The limiting membrane or cell-wall. 2. The contents, consisting of the protoplasm and various bodies embedded in it or surrounded by it (*figs.* 612-614). The protoplasm, being the essential part, may first be examined.

THE PROTOPLASM—In the young state of the cell the protoplasm fills it, and appears as a nearly transparent jelly-like material, somewhat granular in character, and saturated with water.

FIG 612

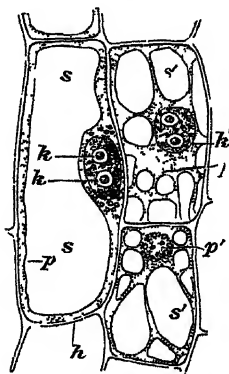


Fig 612 Cells from the root of *Euphorbia imbricata*
 h Cell-wall k Nucleus
 k, l Nucleus with nucleoli
 p Primordial utricle p', p'
 Protoplasmic threads s, s'
 Cell sap cavity s', s'
 Vacuoles After Sachs

This condition is only transitory. Very soon, in consequence of continual absorption of water, the cell, kept turgid and stretched by the internal pressure, increases in size, and the protoplasm does not keep pace in its growth with the enlargement, the water accumulates in drops, which increase in size, and cavities appear in the substance of the protoplasm, which gradually fuse together, forming one or more vacuoles filled with a fluid called the *cell-sap*. In such cells the protoplasm often forms only a lining to the cell-wall, the centre of the cell being occupied by a single large vacuole (fig 612). The protoplasm thus lining the cell has been called the *primordial utricle*.

In the protoplasm, whether filling the cell or not, there exists somewhere in its substance a specially differentiated portion called the *nucleus* (fig. 612, k), and frequently other less differentiated

FIG 613

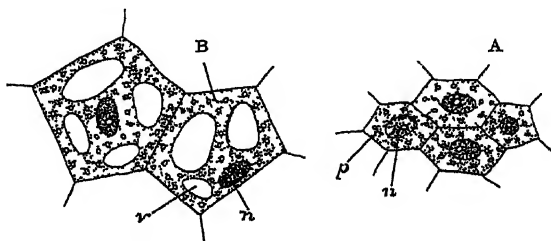


Fig 613 Vegetable cells A Very young B. A little older, showing commencing formation of vacuole.

portions, distinct from the main portion of the protoplasm, known as *plastids*. The bulk of the protoplasm, to distinguish

it from these specialised portions, is generally called the *cytoplasm*. It is not of the same consistency throughout, a generally firmer portion lying next to the cell-wall being known as the *ectoplasm*. A similar firm layer frequently may be detected round the vacuole. The exact chemical composition of protoplasm cannot be ascertained, as analysis involves its death, and this is attended by changes in its substance. It is composed of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, and probably sulphur and phosphorus. Enclosed in it are always varying quantities of organic substances, such as proteids, fats, carbohydrates, and small portions of various inorganic salts. These various constituents are connected with the nutritive processes of the cell, or its *metabolism*, and hence differ greatly in nature and amount from time to time.

In the case of the free-swimming protoplasts with which we began the study of protoplasm, we see that they are in active movement. As the protoplasm becomes enclosed in cell-walls this motility is, of course, less and less obvious. Indeed, in most cells it can hardly be distinguished. There is reason to suppose, however, that protoplasm, wherever existing, is in active motion. In many of the constituent cells of even the higher plants this motility can be observed. In certain of the cells forming the leaves of many water-plants, e.g. *Vallisneria*, *Nitella*, *Elodea* (*fig* 614), and others, a streaming movement of the granules the protoplasm contains can be detected with ease. In other plants of terrestrial habit, such as *Tradescantia* and *Chelidonium*, a streaming of the protoplasm is observable (*fig*. 615). Such movements are spoken of as *rotation* when the stream flows uniformly round the wall of the cell, or as *circulation* when the path has a more complicated course.

Somewhere in the cell there is always to be found a specially differentiated portion of the protoplasm known as the *nucleus* (*figs*. 614 and 615, *n*). It may lie in the centre, when it is attached to the sides by bands or threads of protoplasm, or it may lie embedded in the layer which lines the cell. This body has a more definite structure than the rest of the cytoplasm, it is bounded at the surface by a delicate membrane, which is thought, however, to be a denser layer of the protoplasm of the cell rather than to belong to the nucleus itself; it consists of two substances which differ from each other in their power of staining with different reagents. The bulk of the nucleus is composed of a semi-fluid material known as *nucleoplasm*, in which is embedded a network of fibrils. The latter are com-

posed of a hyaline substance in which lie close to each other a number of granules which stain deeply with many colouring matters. The fibrils contain the granules in such large proportion that except with very high magnification the latter cannot be distinguished, and consequently the whole fibril appears stained. These fibrils are generally said to be composed of *chromatin*, the name having reference to nothing more than this reaction to stains.

FIG 614

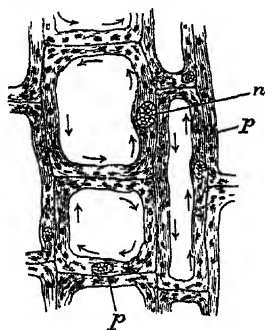


FIG 615

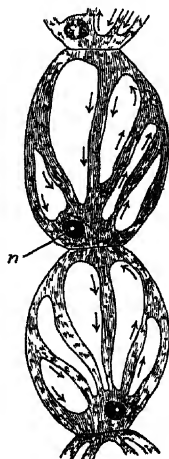


Fig 614 Cells from leaf of *Elodea*, the arrows show the direction of the rotation of the protoplasm. *n* Nucleus. *p* Protoplasm or primordial utricle, in which are embedded numerous chloroplasts ($\times 300$).—Fig 615 Two cells from a staminal hair of *Tradescantia*. The arrows indicate the direction of the circulation of the protoplasm. *n* Nucleus ($\times 300$).

One or more small deeply staining bodies, termed *nucleolus*, are found in each nucleus, sometimes being very prominent, and at other times hardly distinguishable from the nodes of the fibrillar network.

Chemically the nucleus much resembles the rest of the protoplasm, but, in addition to the substances found to be present in the latter, the nucleus contains a body known as *nuclein*, of which phosphorus is a constituent.

Associated with the nucleus there have been observed in certain cases two very small bodies lying usually side by side at

some point of its margin. These are called the *centrospheres*. Each is a spherical hyaline body, with a distinct outline, and contains in its interior a central smaller body. This is known as the *centrosome*.

In rare cases a true cell may contain several nuclei. This occurs in consequence of direct division or fragmentation of the original nucleus.

Besides these typical constituents the protoplasm of many cells contains other differentiated bodies, known as *plastids*. These are special bodies which are charged with some definite function and point to an early division of labour in the cell. They are of a somewhat similar structure to the nucleus, being formed of a fibrillar network supported by a ground substance. Some of them are colourless, others impregnated with different colours. The first are called *leucoplasts*, the others *chloro-* or *chromoplasts*, according to their hue, the green ones or chlorophyll bodies being thus distinguished from all others (*fig. 614*).

The plastids must be distinguished from other cell-contents, such as will be described later. They are independent bodies charged with the performance of definite functions; they always lie in the substance of the protoplasm, and not in the vacuoles, they have a power of multiplication by division, quite apart from the activity of the cell-protoplasm. Their shape and their dimensions vary extremely in different cells, but they are generally spheroidal or discoid. There seems to be but little difference between the chloroplast and the leucoplast, the latter being formed in parts to which light has no access, the former occurring in parts exposed to light. In the presence of light the leucoplasts can develop a green colouring matter, becoming chloroplasts.

The colouring matters of the different plastids can be extracted by various solvents, leaving a colourless basis. The green colouring matter of the chloroplasts, which is known as *chlorophyll*, can be dissolved out by alcohol, benzol, and other fluids. The red or brown colour of the chromoplasts of the red or brown seaweeds is soluble in cold distilled water. They are found after removal of these pigments to contain chlorophyll as well.

Chromoplasts of various colours give the tints to many of the brilliant floral leaves, particularly those which are yellow or scarlet. These are generally derived from chloroplasts, the leaves when young being green.

We have seen that, at some period of their life, some of the lowliest plants consist only of a small ovoid mass of protoplasm, with two appendages or flagella at one end. These flagella, like

the rest of the cell, are composed of protoplasm, and are especially capable of vigorous movement, showing a certain differentiation with that object. Other naked cells are not furnished with these flagella, but possess much shorter, more delicate threads known as *cilia*, which are placed either all over their surface as in the case of the zoospores of *Vaucheria*, or form a ring near one end, as in those of *Edogonium* (fig. 666, c). In many of such naked cells there is a specially coloured corpuscle, usually red, known as an *eye spot*. In others a special vacuole in the protoplasm shows a rhythmical enlargement and contraction. This is known as a *contractile vacuole*. It recalls a similar structure in the lowest animal organisms.

THE CELL-WALL — We have seen that in most cases the first evidence of the vital power of the protoplasm is the formation of a membrane which surrounds it on all sides. This is known as the *cell-wall*. It is originally composed of a substance known as *cellulose*, consisting of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen in the proportion of six parts of carbon to ten of hydrogen and five of oxygen. As the hydrogen and oxygen exist in the same proportions as they do in water, this body is a member of a group of substances known as carbohydrates. Sugar and starch are other members of the same group.

Cellulose is a colourless transparent substance, easily permeable by water and by substances in solution in it. It can be stained violet by iodine in the presence of sulphuric acid or chloride of zinc.

Cell-wall consists of cellulose which contains a varying quantity of water. Various views have been held as to the way in which the two are associated. According to Nageli the particles of cellulose, known as micellæ, are of crystalline form, the long axes of the crystals being arranged at right angles to the surface of the wall. Each micella is surrounded by a thin film of water. According to Strasburger the particles of cellulose are arranged in a network, water occupying its meshes. In either case the quantity of water is capable of considerable increase or diminution, and the wall can be made to swell up by causing it to imbibe more fluid. This can be brought about by exposing it to the action of strong acids, such as sulphuric acid.

A different view of the composition of the cell-wall has been advanced in recent years by Wiesner. He holds that the substance of cell-wall as it is first formed consists of rows of granular bodies which he terms *dermatosomes*, which are united together and surrounded by protoplasm. On this hypothesis the

cell-wall is living while young and growing. The protoplasm thus exists between particles of cellulose, and holds water in its substance.

As the cells grow there is a continuous formation of cellulose, due, like its first formation, to the vital activity of the protoplasm. By irregularity of growth, due to internal causes bringing about

FIG 616.

FIG 617

FIG. 618.

FIG 619.



Fig 616 Rounded cells — Fig 617 Elliptic or oblong cell — Figs 618, 619 Polygonal cells in combination those of the latter figure being pitted

greater possibility of stretching in certain places, cells become of various forms, when the growth is uniform, or nearly so, in all parts of the cell-wall, we have a *spherical* or *rounded* cell (fig. 616), but when it is greater at the two extremities than at the sides, the form is *oval* or *oblong* (fig 617). In the above cases, also, the cells are almost, or entirely, free from external pressure. But, under other circumstances, in consequence of the mutual pressure of surrounding cells, they assume a *polygonal* form (figs. 618 and 619), the number of the angles depending upon the number and arrangement of the contiguous cells.

When the growth is nearly uniform on all sides of the cell-wall, but not equally so at all points of its surface, we have cells which maintain a rounded form in the centre, but having rays projecting from them in various directions, by which they acquire a more or less star-like appearance (fig 620); and hence such cells are called *stellate*. These rays may be situated in one plane, or project from all sides of the cell. It is rarely the case that such cells have the rays at regular intervals, or all of one length, but various degrees of irregularity occur, which lead to corresponding irregular forms in such cells

FIG 620

FIG 621.

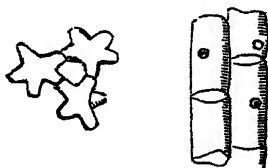


Fig 620 Stellate cells — Fig 621 Cylindrical cells. The small rounded body in the interior of three of these cells is the nucleus.

When the growth takes place chiefly in one direction, we have cells which are elongated, either horizontally or vertically. Of those cells, which are extended in length or vertically, we have such forms as the *cylindrical* (fig 621) and *fusiform* (fig. 622), and which, by the mutual pressure of contiguous cells, often become *prismatic*. In many Fungi again we have a very marked form. Thus the cells are here thin-walled

FIG 622



FIG 623

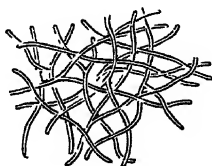


FIG 624

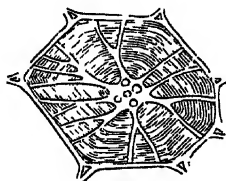


FIG 625

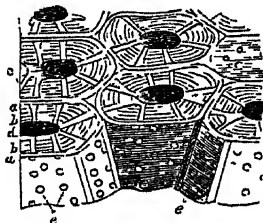


FIG 626.

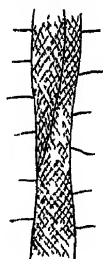


Fig 622 Elongated fusiform cells — Fig 623 Fibrilliform cells (*Lupulus*) — Fig 624 Transverse section of a thick-walled cell of the pith of *Boya carnosus* From Mohl — Fig 625 Thick walled cells from the fruit of a Palm. *a, a* Cell walls *b, b* Concentric layers of thickening *c* Canals extending from the central cavity to the inside of the wall of the cell *d* Cavity of the cell *e, e* External dotted appearance From Unger — Fig 626 Striated fibres from bast of Lime tree.

and very long and thread-like, and either simple or branched (fig 623).

When the cell has attained its full size, or in some cases while it is still growing in surface, the wall becomes thickened by the deposition of successive layers over those already formed. A transverse section of many cell-walls shows traces of this mode of thickening, the successive layers appearing as shells of substance lying one upon another. Such a cell-wall is said to be stratified (figs 624 and 625). Viewed longitudinally, the walls

often appear covered with delicate oblique striations which may run regularly in one direction only, or may be crossed by others. This is due to the way in which the protoplasm deposits the new particles of cellulose upon the layers already existing, a succes-

FIG. 627. FIG. 628 FIG. 629 FIG. 630 FIG. 631.



Fig 627 Spiral cell — Fig 628 Annular cell — Fig 629 Reticulated cells — Fig 630 Pitted and reticulated cell — Fig 631 Wood-cells of the Yew (*Taxus baccata*) After Mohl

sion of spiral bands being laid down with their edges in contact. Such striations can be well observed in many of the elongated cells or fibres which form part of the soft portions of the vascular bundles of the higher plants (fig 626).

FIG. 632 FIG. 633 FIG. 634 FIG. 635 FIG. 636.

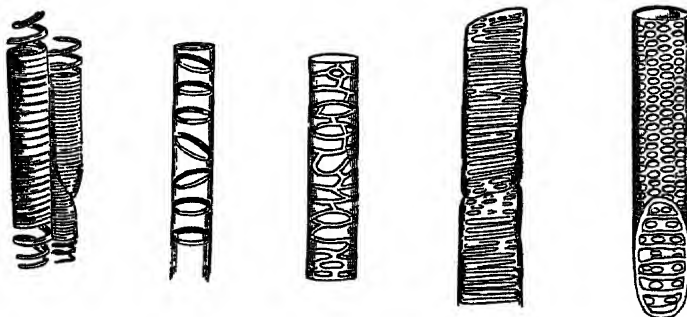


Fig 632 Simple spiral vessels — Fig 633 Annular vessel — Fig 634 Reticulated vessel — Fig 635 Cylindrical scalariform vessels of the Vine — Fig 636 Pitted tracheid terminating obliquely, and showing that the partition wall has been incompletely absorbed

It generally happens that when cell-walls are being thickened, the new deposits of cellulose are not laid down uniformly over the surface, but instead form ridges or prominences of various patterns, with unthickened portions between them. The

thickening may take the form of a spiral band, winding obliquely round the interior of the cell, it may be deposited in the form of rings placed regularly along its greater axis, or it may be irregularly laid down, giving rise to particular patterns upon the wall. These forms are known as spiral, annular, and reticulated thickenings respectively (*figs* 632-634). In other cases the thickening may extend over the greater surface of the wall, leaving only small unthickened spots. Such a cell-wall is said to be pitted. When two cells side by side are undergoing thickening simultaneously, the thick and thin places on the separating wall correspond in position, and the pits appear as delicate canals which in some cases serve as means of communication from cell to cell (*figs* 625 and 637).

In the cell-walls of the wood-cells of certain trees we find,

FIG 637

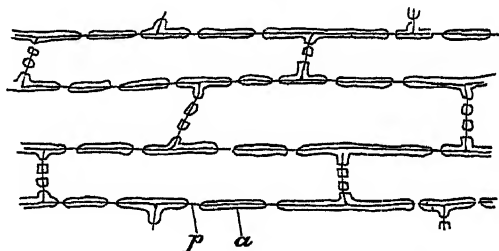


FIG 637 Cells whose walls are in process of thickening. The thick and thin places on the separating wall correspond in position. *p* Pits or thin places. *a* Thickening deposit.

in addition to the ordinary pits, large circular discs which encircle them so that each pit looks as if it had a ring surrounding it (*fig* 638), hence such cells have been termed *cells with bordered pits* or *disc-bearing wood-cells*. This appearance is produced by circular patches of the cell-wall remaining thin after the general thickening has commenced and the rim growing obliquely inwards, leaving ultimately only a narrow orifice in the centre, or, in other words, the opening of the canal into the interior is narrow, while the outer opening by the cell-wall is broad (*fig* 639 *a, b, c*). As these thickenings occur always in twos, that is, one on each side of the cell-wall, they appear as two watch-glasses would do if placed rim to rim, and separated by a thin sheet of paper. To carry out the comparison, however, completely, the watch-glasses must be supposed to be perforated

in their centres (*fig. 639, b*) The central lighter spot when examined by transmitted light is caused by the light having to pass only through the thin unthickened cell-wall or membrane (*fig. 639, c, w*), while the darker colour of the border is caused by the light having to pass through the thicker substance of the rim. The membrane has a separate central thickening called the *torus*, which thus lies inside the pit, and is about as large as the central opening, which it can therefore block up if great tension exists on either side of the membrane, forcing it outwards. In very old wood this intervening membrane often becomes absorbed, and then direct communication between the adjoining cells is possible.

FIG 638



FIG 639.

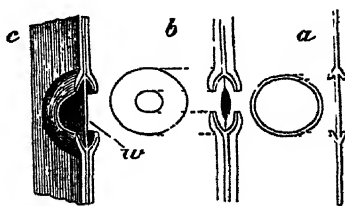


Fig 638 Bordered pits of the wood cells of the Pine, with a single row of discs on each cell — *Fig 639* Bordered pits of the wood cells of the Pine (diagram) *a* Young stage with unthickened cell-wall or membrane *b* Older stage showing the membrane with its torus. *c* Semi-profile view, showing position of membrane, *w* After Sachs

These bordered pits or discs occur either in single rows (*fig. 638*), or in double or triple rows. In those cases where there is more than one row of bordered pits, those in each row may be either on the same level, as is more commonly the case, or at different levels, and hence alternate to each other, as in the *Araucarias* and allied trees.

Cells presenting such a characteristic appearance are of universal occurrence in the wood of the *Coniferae* and *Taxaceae*, where they are also most distinctly observed. But somewhat similar bordered pits of smaller size may also be found in many other *Phanerogamia*.

The material of which the cell-wall is originally composed is cellulose. The reactions by which this substance may be recognised are—

1. It is insoluble in water, weak acids or alkalis, alcohol, ether, benzol or other aromatic liquid, but dissolves in ammoniacal solution of oxide of copper

2 It is permeable by water, extensible and elastic

3 It swells up and slowly dissolves when treated with strong sulphuric acid.

4 It colours violet when treated with sulphuric acid and iodine, or with a solution of iodine in potassic iodide and chloride of zinc

5 It is doubly refractive when viewed with polarised light

The cellulose is seldom found pure, soon after the formation of the cell-wall, changes occur in it, admixture of mineral sub-

FIG 640

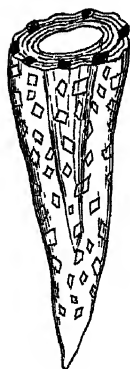


FIG 641

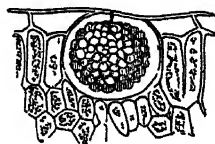


FIG 642

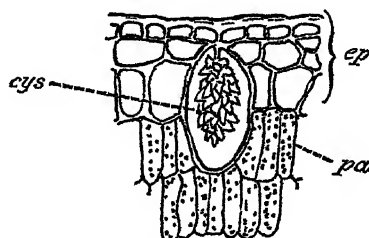


FIG 640 Bast cell of *Ephedra* with crystals embedded in the wall — FIG 641 Cystolith, from *Parietaria officinalis* — FIG 642 Cystolith, from the leaf of *Ficus elastica*
ep Three-layered epidermis *pa* Parenchyma of leaf
cys Cystolith

stances to a considerable extent rapidly taking place. The chief of these are salts of lime, usually the oxalate, but often the carbonate. Some cell-walls show a copious deposit of regular crystals of one of these—such are the cells of the bulb-scales of the Onion, the fibres of the bast of *Ephedra*, and others (fig 640). In many plants copious deposits of silica are found in the cell-wall, notably in the epidermal cells of Grasses and Equisetaceæ. In some plants of the Nettle family curious cellulose projections occur in some of the cells of the epidermis which contain irregular masses of calcium carbonate. These are known as *cystoliths* (fig 642).

Besides these admixtures of foreign substances, cell-wall is found to contain other bodies derived from changes in the cellulose itself. Of these, three are especially prominent—lignin, cutin, and

mucilage. Lignin is the material which is especially characteristic of wood-cells. It is permeable by water very readily, but unlike cellulose it cannot retain much in its substance, nor can it swell up under the influence of sulphuric acid. It can be recognised by turning pink when treated with phloroglucin and hydrochloric acid. The wall of a wood-cell does not consist entirely of lignin, but of a cellulose basis which is largely impregnated with this substance. By the action of nitric acid and chlorate of potash the lignin can be dissolved, leaving the cellulose framework.

Cutin is found chiefly in the external layers of the thickened epidermal cells. It differs from cellulose in many points, it is but slightly permeable by water, and it stains yellow instead of violet when treated with iodine and sulphuric acid. It turns yellowish-brown when acted upon by caustic potash. Cutin is found also in the walls of cork cells, where it is associated frequently with a certain amount of lignin. Like lignin, cutin is soluble in warm nitric acid and chlorate of potash.

Mucilage is found in the cell-walls of certain layers of the coats of such seeds as linseed, and in the cells of many Algae. It absorbs water greedily and swells up considerably. It gives a violet colour with iodine and sulphuric acid as cellulose does, differing from the latter chiefly in the ease with which the absorption of water is brought about. In some cells the mucilaginous degeneration of the cellulose goes so far as to lead to the production of gum, which is soluble in water. Exudations of gum produced in this way are very common on Cherry trees.

The cell-wall is often found to be impregnated with wax, which in some cases is so plentiful as to form a layer of particles on the external surface. This can be seen in the bloom of certain fruits, such as the Plum and the Grape, also on the leaves of the Wax Palm.

Certain modifications of cellulose also occur, unmixed with any of these derivatives. The walls of the hyphæ of Fungi are an example of these, the cellulose, sometimes called *fungus cellulose*, does not turn violet when treated with iodine and sulphuric acid. In the walls of certain cells, such as the bast of *Lycopodium*, the endosperm of the *Pæony*, and the cells of the cotyledons of some of the *Leguminosæ*, a variety of cellulose is found which stains blue with iodine alone.

Chemically regarded, the cell-wall is thus seen to be very complex in composition. Originally it is pure cellulose, as it grows older this simplicity disappears, and it is found to be a mixture

of cellulose with various products of its decomposition, which are present in very varying proportions, or with other materials which have been absorbed by it and deposited in its substance.

THE CELL-CONTENTS—Besides the protoplasm or living material present in the cell, very many other substances are found there which are extremely variable in nature and amount. All these are to be associated in some way with the vital activity of the protoplasm. As the latter is practically stationary in the cell and carries on its life-work there, it is evident that the substances necessary for its nutrition must be brought to it, and as these pass readily from cell to cell by means of the water which saturates the living parts, they must be in solution. The water which is always present in the cell is known as the cell-sap. It may be equally distributed through the protoplasm as in young cells, or it may occupy also spaces in the latter which we have already described as vacuoles. It is never present as pure water, but always contains various chemical substances dissolved in it. Besides containing the inorganic substances absorbed from outside, it also has dissolved in it many bodies which have been made by the activity of the protoplasm; and as the various processes carried out by the latter vary very much in different cells, the cell-sap has no constant composition, but varies very much in different cells, according to the work they do.

The substances which the protoplasm constructs are again destined to various purposes. Some are to be used up in various ways, either in the cell in which they are formed, or in other cells to which they are to be transported. These are generally known as *reserve* materials. They may remain in the cells for a longer or shorter period. Others are to be regarded as material which is of no further use to the plant at all, and are therefore to be got rid of. It is important to remember that the plant, unlike the animal organism, has little or no power to excrete anything from its body. Waste products, therefore, instead of being thrown off at once by definite channels, are usually packed away in particular cells of the plant—for instance, in the bark of trees.

Other products are neither reserve nor waste materials, but are formed in the cells to perform definite work there, such are the bodies known as *enzymes* or *ferments*, which carry out many chemical changes in the substances deposited in the cells.

As we have seen, many of these various bodies exist in the cell-sap in a state of solution, others, however, are deposited in a solid form. We can explain the presence of the latter in the

same way as that of the others, they are either reserve or waste products, or charged with a definite duty in the work of the cell.

The cell-contents varying thus from place to place and from time to time, stand in a very different position to the protoplasm, which is constant in its presence during the time the cell is living. The protoplasm carries out the vital work, aided by the various plastids already alluded to, when these are present. The other cell-contents are to be regarded only as aiding or resulting from the work of the protoplasm or the plastids.

The bodies included in the cell-contents, using the term in this restricted sense, may be divided into two groups: those soluble and those insoluble in the cell-sap. In the former are included constructive materials for the protoplasm, such as freshly absorbed inorganic salts, and more highly elaborated bodies destined either for immediate use, or temporary storage, or possibly merely on their way through the cell. Various carbohydrates, chiefly sugars, vegetable acids and their salts, nitrogen-containing bodies in the form of amides, belong to this category. Other substances, possibly nutritive, possibly only the bye-products of nutrition, such as tannin, various glucosides, alkaloids, and other complex bodies, are also to be met with. In many cells, though with a more restricted distribution, we find dissolved various colouring matters, chiefly blues, violets, or reds.

The bodies which form the second or insoluble group include starch grains, fats, proteid reserve materials, either in amorphous, granular, or crystalline form, and crystals of inorganic salts.

All these call for separate description.

Starch Grains — Starch is not only widely distributed through the different parts of a plant, but it also occurs in varying quantity in all classes of plants with the exception of the Fungi. In all cases starch is a transitory product stored up for future use. When required for the nutrition of the plant, it is converted into sugar, which is a soluble substance, and can therefore be at once applied to the purposes of nutrition, which is not the case with starch in its unaltered condition, as it is then insoluble.

When fully formed starch is found floating in the cell-sap, it is (*fig* 643) in the form of colourless granules or grains, which are either distinct from one another, or more or less combined so as to form compound granules (*figs* 649 and 652).

In form the separate granules are always spherical or nearly so in their earliest condition. In some cases this form is nearly maintained in their mature state, as in Wheat starch (*fig* 650), but the granules frequently assume other forms, as ovate,

elliptical, more or less irregular, club-shaped, or angular (*figs* 644-647 and 651) Starch granules vary also extremely in size in different plants, and even in the same cell of any particular plant. The largest granules known appear to be those of Canna starch, or, as it is commonly termed, 'Tous-les-mois,' where they are sometimes as much as the $\frac{3}{16}$ of an inch in length (*fig.* 647),

FIG 643



FIG 644



FIG 645



Fig 643 Cell of the Potato containing starch granules — *Fig* 644 West-India Arrowroot ($\times 250$) — *Fig* 645 Sago meal ($\times 250$)

while the smallest granules, among which may be mentioned those of Rice starch (*fig* 651), are frequently under $\frac{1}{16}$ of an inch in length.

Development of Starch.—Starch first makes its appearance

FIG 646

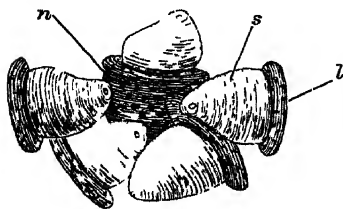


FIG 647

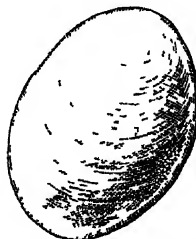


FIG 648



Fig 646 Group of rod-like leucoplasts, *l*, each bearing a starch-grain, *s*, collected round the nucleus, *n*, of a cell of the pseudo bulb of an Orchid (*Pharus grandifolius*) $\times 500$ After Schimper — *Fig* 647 Tous les mois ($\times 250$) — *Fig* 648 Potato starch ($\times 250$)

as minute colourless granules in the interior of the chlorophyll grains when exposed to sunlight. These primary starch granules rarely grow to any considerable size. In the parts of the plant which are not exposed to light, grains of larger dimensions and of some complexity of structure are met with. These are formed

by the activity of another form of plastid, much like the chloroplast, but, on account of the absence of the green colour, known as a leucoplast or amyloplast (*fig* 646). In a grain formed by such a leucoplast (*figs* 647 and 648), we may observe a roundish dark spot, which is termed the *hilum*, situated near one end of the granule, and surrounding this a variable number of faint lines which alternate with other darker ones, so that the whole presents the appearance of a series of more or less irregular concentric shells placed around a common point. The cause of these appearances has given rise to much discussion, but from the observations of Schimper and others there appears to be no doubt that these shells are separate layers of starch substance that have been deposited successively by the amyloplast round the first formed portion, which is therefore more or less central. The various shapes of starch grains are due to irregular deposition of

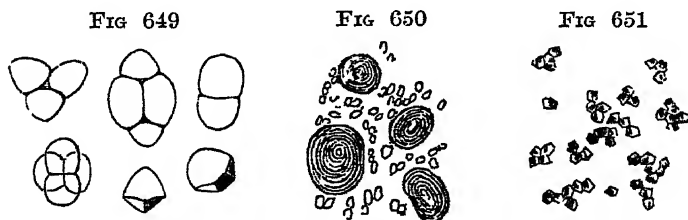


Fig 649 Compound starch granules of West-India Arrowroot. After Schleiden — *Fig* 650 Wheat starch ($\times 250$) — *Fig* 651 Rice starch ($\times 250$)

these layers. If the grain is formed in the interior of the amyloplast the layers are concentric, if the formation commences at some portion of its exterior the layers are irregular, being thicker and more numerous on the end of the grain which is nearest to the plastid, as in the Potato (*fig* 648).

Compound starch grains are frequently met with. These are of two kinds: some are due to two or more grains having been pressed together during their development. Such grains usually originate by two or more arising in the interior of the same plastid. Others are found to contain two or more hila, each with its concentric rings, and the whole surrounded by several layers of the same material. In this case the amyloplast has begun to form two or more grains at points on its exterior, and these in time have come into contact. The further activity of the plastid has led to the aggregation becoming surrounded by deposits or shells of starch (*fig.* 652).

In some cases the starch grains are of extremely curious shape. They may be rod-like, or like dumb-bells with elongated handles, as in *Euphorbia*. These are formed by plastids which divide into two during the process of deposition of the starch (fig 653)

In many cells the starch grains are extremely minute and occur in enormous numbers, as in the style of the Lily. These specks are probably formed directly by the protoplasm, as no plastids have yet been discovered in the cells of this tissue

Composition and Chemical Characteristics of Starch ($C_6H_{10}O_5$)_n—The starch granule consists of the true starch-

FIG 652

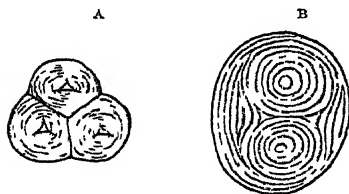


FIG 653

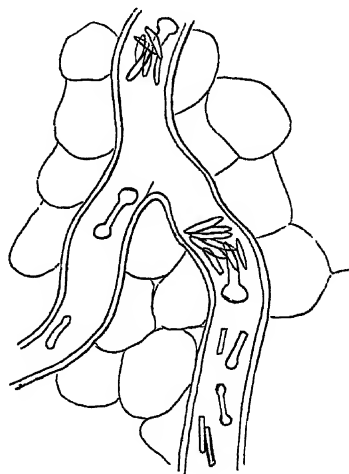


Fig 652 A Compound, B Semi-compound granule of starch—Fig 653 Part of a laticiferous cell from *Euphorbia splendens*, it contains starch granules of a peculiar dumb bell and somewhat rod- and bone-like form

compound and water The starch-compound is again formed of two substances, which are intimately blended together, viz *granulose* and *starch-cellulose*. The granulose makes up by far the greater part of the starch-compound; it is capable of being dissolved out of the cellulose by saliva and dilute acids, and it is to it that the starch granule owes the violet-blue colour which it assumes when treated with a solution of iodine. The cellulose on the other hand, not being soluble, is left behind as a skeleton, and is not coloured blue by the iodine solution

Starch is insoluble in cold water, alcohol, ether, and oils. By

the action of boiling water it swells up and forms a mucilage or paste, if to this when cooled iodine be added, a deep blue colour is produced, but this colour is at once destroyed again by the application of heat or alkalis. If starch be exposed to a temperature of about 320° F. for a short time, it is converted into a soluble gummy substance, called *dextrin* or *British gum*. By the action of dilute sulphuric acid it is transformed into sugar. This change is brought about in the cells of the plant by a peculiar nitrogenous body known as *diastase*, a member of a group of bodies termed *enzymes*, which are of widespread occurrence in plants and which will be spoken of later

FIG 654

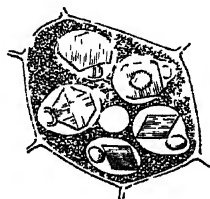


FIG 655



Fig 654 Cell from the endosperm or albumen of the seed of the Castor-oil plant (*Ricinus communis*) in dilute glycerine, showing large transparent proteid or aleurone grains, with crystalloids and globoids embedded in them. After Sachs.—Fig 655 Cells of a very thin section through a cotyledon of the embryo in a ripe seed of the common Pea (*Pisum sativum*) a, a Aleurone grains st Starch granules z, z Intercellular spaces. After Sachs

Proteids—We have already seen that the protoplasm of the cell encloses in its meshwork varying quantities of the peculiar nitrogenous material known as proteid. In some cells this exists in large proportion in amorphous form. In most cases, however, it is deposited in the form of grains of definite shape and sometimes of complex character. These grains are known as *aleurone grains*. They consist of mixtures of proteids belonging to the globulin and albumose classes, which show considerable differences in solubility. In most cases they can be seen to be in a coarse meshwork of protoplasm. They are especially characteristic of the cells of the contents of the seed, and are

indeed reserve nitrogenous materials for the use of the embryo during germination

The aleurone grains vary very much in size and shape. In the Pea they may be seen as very small round bodies lying in the same cells as starch grains (*fig* 655). In the Lupin they are larger, and occur in conjunction with oil, but not starch. In both these cases they show no structure. In the Castor-oil seed and in that of the Brazil nut they differ from the simple forms described. The larger part of the aleurone grain is occupied by a crystalline portion, known as the *crystalloid*. This, like the grain itself, is proteid in character. There is present also in these grains a rounded aggregation of mineral matter, a double phosphate of calcium and magnesium, which is termed the *globoid* (*fig* 654).

In a few cases, cells are found to contain crystalloids of proteid not included in an aleurone grain. Such bodies occur frequently in certain parts of the tuber of the Potato, and in some Seaweeds.

Fats and Oils—Certain cells, generally in the fruit or seed, contain fats or oils saturating the protoplasm, or sometimes occupying nearly the whole of the cell-cavity. Ethereal oils are found similarly in cells of various parts of the leaves or stems, usually in small aggregations of cells in the interior of the tissue, or in cells of the hairs which grow from the epidermis. These are generally spoken of as oil-glands, or glandular hairs.

Resins—In certain plants, particularly those belonging to the natural order Coniferæ, certain aggregations of cells are found to contain quantities of peculiar material, generally termed *resin*. This material is different in composition in different plants, it may be recognised by staining red with alcoholic tincture of alkanin. It is soluble in alcohol, benzol, and ether, but insoluble in any watery fluid.

Raphides—This name is now more generally applied to all inorganic crystals of whatever form which are found in the cells of plants, although the term *raphides* was originally given to those only that had the form of a needle (*figs* 658 and 659). Raphides may be found more or less in nearly all orders of plants, and in all their organs, generally, however, they are most abundant in the stems of herbaceous plants, in the bark of woody plants, and in leaves and roots. In some plants they occur in such enormous quantities that they exceed in weight the dried tissue in which they are deposited: this may be specially observed in some Cactaceæ. The raphides are usually

contained in cells, from which starch, chlorophyll, and other granular structures are absent (*fig* 658), although this is by no means necessarily the case.

The raphides occur either singly in the cells, as in those of the bark of the Locust tree (*fig* 656); or far more commonly there are a number of crystals in the same cell. In the latter case they are usually either placed side by side, as in the stem of *Rumex* (*fig* 658), or in groups radiating from a common point, and then assuming a clustered or conglomerate appearance, as in the stem of the common Beet (*fig* 657). The former have been termed *acicular raphides*, and the latter *conglomerate raphides*.

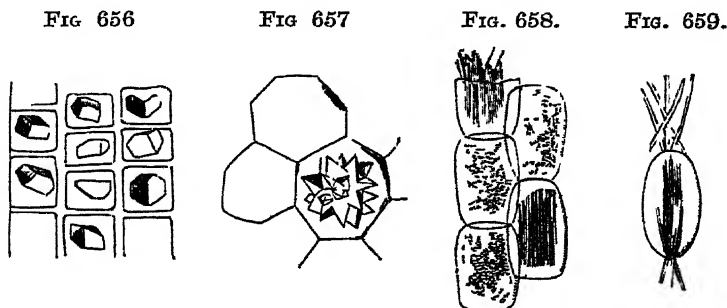


Fig 656 Solitary crystals or raphides in the cells of the bark of the Locust tree After Gray — *Fig* 657 Conglomerate raphides or sphaeraphides of the Beet — *Fig* 658 Acicular or true raphides of a species of *Rumex* Two cells contain raphides, and three of them chlorophyll granules — *Fig* 659 True or acicular raphides of an *Arum* being discharged through endosmose under the influence of water

In the common *Arum*, where raphides are very abundant, and in some other Araceæ, the cells which contain the raphides are filled with a mucilaginous sap, so that when they are moistened with water endosmosis takes place, by which they are distended and caused ultimately to burst and discharge their crystals from an orifice at each end (*fig* 659).

The crystals thus described consist generally of calcium oxalate, which crystallises in two forms according to the proportion of water it contains. Thus in the one case when the crystals contain six equivalents of water of crystallisation, they form octahedra (*fig* 657), as in the conglomerate raphides or sphaeraphides; and, on the other hand, when there are only two equivalents of water of crystallisation, then bundles of acicular

crystals or true raphides are produced (*figs* 658 and 659). In rarer cases the crystals are composed of calcium carbonate

The raphides are to be regarded as waste products, or by-products of the metabolism of the cell. They are frequently surrounded by a delicate pellicle of cellulose, thus being shut off from contact with the protoplasm.

Of the substances which are met with in solution in the cell-sap, little more need be said at present. The kinds of sugar found are chiefly maltose, grape sugar and cane sugar. A peculiar carbohydrate body, *mulin*, is found in certain of the Compositæ, particularly the Dahlia and the Artichoke. This substance has the same percentage composition as starch, and, like the latter, is readily convertible into a form of sugar. It can

FIG 660

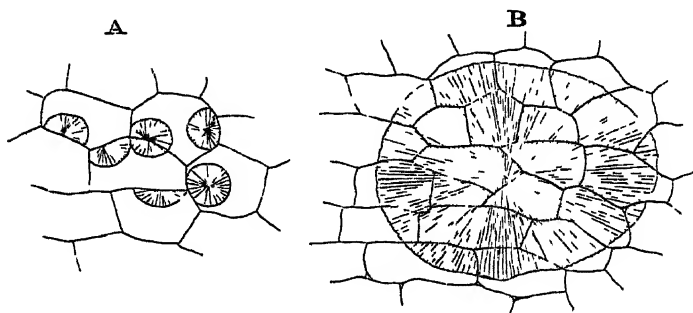


Fig 660 Sphere crystals of mulin from the Artichoke. A Small crystals in interior of cells. B Large crystals extending through many cells ($\times 250$)

be made to separate out from the cell-sap by keeping the tissue containing it in spirit. A section taken through such a piece of tissue and mounted in water will show large sphaero-crystals of mulin, often extending through several contiguous cells (*fig* 660).

The amides, such as asparagin, leucin, &c, which are found in the cell-sap, are generally the result of the decomposition of proteid material. They are very prominent in young seedlings and in germinating seeds.

In many cells the peculiar bodies spoken of as enzymes occur. These are very varied, and a discussion of their peculiarities must be deferred to a later section of this work. They can only be detected in cells by the results of their activity.

The cells vary much in size in different plants, and in

different parts of the same plant. Polygonal or oblong cells, on an average, vary from about $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{32}$ of an inch in diameter, others again are not more than $\frac{1}{64}$; while in some cases they are so large as to be visible to the naked eye, being as much as $\frac{1}{8}$ or even $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch in diameter. The largest occur in the pith of plants, in succulent parts, and in water-plants.

The dimensions of elongated cells generally afford a striking contrast to those of the former, for while we find that their transverse diameter is commonly much less, averaging about $\frac{1}{16}$ of an inch, and frequently not more than $\frac{1}{32}$, they become much more extended longitudinally, sometimes reaching four, five, or more inches in length. More generally, however, they vary from about $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch in length.

Those cells again which have an unrestrained development are frequently also far more extended in length. Thus, the cell of which each filament of cotton is formed is sometimes as much as one or two inches long. On the other hand, some of the minute cells known as *microbes* or *micro-organisms* are not more than $\frac{1}{32}$ of an inch in diameter.

CHAPTER II

FORMATION OF CELLS—TISSUES

WE have seen that every plant commences its life as a single cell, sometimes a naked piece of protoplasm, as a gamete, or one clothed with a cell-wall, as most kinds of spore. It follows from this that all the cells of which the most complex plant body is composed are derived from one of these by some process of multiplication. In this, as in all other vital processes, the protoplasm is the active agent. In the production of the gamete or spore itself we have to do with the formation of a new cell, not necessarily by a process of multiplication, while in the case of all zygospores and oospores the new individual is the result of fusion of cells, and therefore involves diminution instead of increase of number.

We may distinguish several different methods of cell formation, which may, however, be classed under the two heads mentioned above. First we will take those cases in which the new cell results from the division of an antecedent cell, and afterwards those in which no such division takes place.

1 FORMATION OF NEW CELLS BY DIVISION OF ANTECEDENT CELLS.—This is by far the most frequent method. Usually a cell divides into two, and a wall is generally immediately formed between them. Less often a variable number of cells is formed in the interior of a cell, known generally as the *mother-cell*, and they become clothed with cell-walls simultaneously or not at all. The former is most common in vegetative, the latter in reproductive processes. The two processes are termed *cell-division* and *free cell-formation*.

Cell-division—We have pointed out that the division of the cell is brought about by the protoplasm. The actual division of this is preceded by a division of the nucleus, which may be direct or indirect, the latter being much the more general. The changes in the nucleus in this case are known as *karyokinesis*.

In the cases that have been most completely investigated the nucleus consists essentially of a delicate network of fibrils

of chromatin, embedded in a hyaline substance, and surrounded by a more or less well-defined outline derived from the cell-protoplasm and known as the nuclear membrane. Associated with it are two small centrospheres. Karyokinesis begins by the network of fibrils becoming coarser and gradually separating to form a long coiled fibre. The nucleoli disappear, and the nuclear membrane can no longer be distinguished. At the same time, the two centrospheres shift their position and come to lie on opposite sides of the nucleus at some little distance from it. The long coiled fibre of chromatin breaks up into a number of V-shaped pieces which point towards the centre of the nucleus. The number of these varies in different cells, but is constant in those of the same tissue. The chromatin in the fibres is seen to be broken up into discs, which are

FIG. 661.

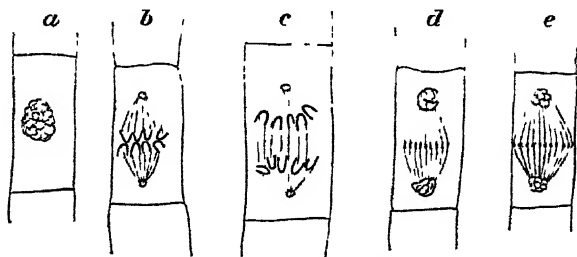


Fig. 661 Stages in karyokinetic division of the nucleus. *a* Resting nucleus. *b* Stige of equatorial plate. *c* Separation of the chromosomes. *d* Commencement of formation of cell-wall. *e* Extension of nuclear spindle across the cell.

separated from each other by smaller discs of unstainable substance. Threads of delicate character may next be seen to extend from one centrosphere to the other, forming a body known as the *nuclear spindle*. These threads appear to be formed from the cell-protoplasm. The nuclear fibrils travel along these threads, with which their points are in contact, till they form a disc across the spindle. This stage is constant in all cases of karyokinesis, though the details of its formation vary in different cases. The body is sometimes called the *equatorial plate* (fig. 661, *b*). After this stage is reached, each fibril splits longitudinally into two, and the equatorial plate divides into two in such a way that half of each original fibre points its base to one centrosphere, and the other half to the other. The two sets of fibrils so formed then separate and travel back along the

spindle fibres towards the two centrospheres, changing their positions as they go till their convex sides point towards them. They thus collect into two places which are determined by the position of the centrospheres, and present there the appearance of two somewhat star-shaped aggregations. This is known as the *diaster* stage. The fibres now become united by their ends and constitute each a new nucleus, gradually becoming well defined by the appearance of a nuclear membrane, and the original appearance is regained, nucleoli appearing in each new nucleus. The spindle fibres may remain connecting the new nuclei for a time, as is the case when a cell-wall is formed immediately, or they may disappear at once. The centrosphere divides, and the two new centrospheres may be distinguished in contact with some point of the new nucleus.

In ordinary cell-division the formation of the new nuclei is followed by the appearance of a cell-wall in the

FIG. 662

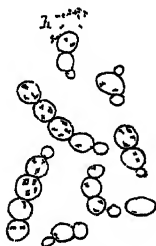


Fig. 662 Yeast plant in process of development — Fig. 663 *Coniferus glomerata*, showing the progressive stages of gemmation or budding (b, c, d, e) a Terminal cell. After Mohl.

FIG. 663



original position of the equatorial plate. If the spindle fibres do not stretch completely across the cell, others are formed beside the original ones, till the spindle is in contact with the lateral cell-walls. Granules which have been floating in the cell-protoplasm are to be seen streaming along the spindle fibres till they form a plate stretching across the middle of the cell from wall to wall.

From this cell-plate the septum of cellulose is formed. The central portion of the plate may be formed before the extension of the spindle across the cell is complete.

A variation is seen in the formation of the spores of certain plants, for instance, the microspores of Dicotyledons. The original nucleus of the mother-cell of the spores divides into two as described above. The spindles disappear, and each nucleus divides again. New spindles are next formed between the four nuclei (fig. 664, b), and then cell-plates or cell-walls are simultaneously developed between them, giving rise to four

so-called *special mother-cells*, each of which develops a spore. The division of the protoplasm in this case is often preceded by a thickening of the cell-wall at the places to which the new septa will be attached, so that the protoplasm is partially separated before the new walls appear.

In ordinary cell-division the two cells are usually of the same size. In some cases a variation in this respect is seen, as in the cells of the Yeast plant. These often put out a lateral protuberance of smaller size, which is gradually abstracted off by the formation of a cell-wall. This variation is known

as *budding*, or *gemmation* (*fig* 662). It is not uncommon among the lower Thallophytes.

In a few cases in some of the lower plants the division of the cell is not preceded by division of the nucleus. In others, after the nucleus has divided, the new cell-wall is formed by an ingrowth from the walls of the original cell.

Free Cell-formation—In this method of cell-formation the nucleus divides repeatedly till a number of nuclei are formed.

The protoplasm aggregates round each nucleus, and a number of naked cells are so formed in the interior of the original cell. In some cases, as in the formation of the zoospores and gametes of many Algae and Fungi (*fig* 665), they remain naked and are discharged in this condition from the cell in which they are formed. In other cases, each new cell secretes a cell-wall round itself.

In its simplest form, this mode of cell-production results in the formation of a number of isolated cells (*fig*. 665). In certain cases, however, the cells are combined into a tissue, as in the endosperm of Phanerogams. When this takes place, a common cell-wall is formed between each two adjacent cells. In many cases of this kind, the new tissue does not fill the cell, but forms only a peripheral layer round it. The new cells then secrete each for itself a cell-wall on their free surfaces, the lateral walls

FIG 664

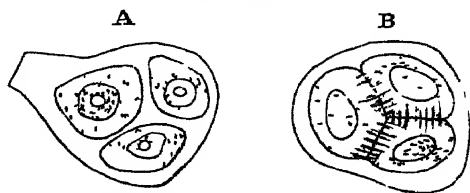


Fig 664 *Helleborus viridis*. After Strasburger ($\times 540$). Quadrupartition of mother-cell of pollen in the connecting throat, and cell plates are shown, in A the walls have been formed. Only three are visible, the fourth not being in focus, the mode of development is tetrahedral.

being common to the contiguous cells. Further multiplication of the cells takes place by repeated cell-divisions.

The formation of the special mother-cells, described as a variation of cell-division, is often included under free cell-formation.

The principal difference between the two modes is that in free cell-formation the new cell, if clothed at all, is nearly or quite surrounded by a freshly secreted cell-wall, in cell-division a new wall is only formed across the line of the division.

2. FORMATION OF NEW CELLS WITHOUT DIVISION—Two

FIG 665

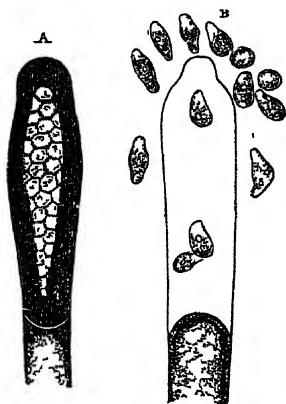


FIG 666.

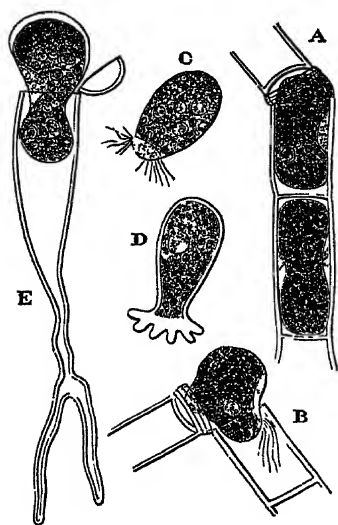


Fig 665 Formation of zoospores in *Achlya*. A Zooporangium, still closed. B The same burst, with the discharged zoospores. After Carpenter. — Fig 666 A, B Escape of the swarm-spores of an *Edogonium*. C One in free motion. D The same after it has become fixed, and has formed the attaching disc. E Escape of the whole protoplasm of a germ-plant of *Edogonium* in the form of a swarm-spore. After Pringsheim.

modes of cell-production belong to this category. The first is known as *rejuvenescence*, and is met with only in connection with reproductive cells. It consists in the protoplasm of a cell withdrawing itself from the cell-wall, and after a short period of quiescence secreting for itself a fresh cell-wall. It may remain within the original cell-wall as in the formation of spores inside the special mother-cells, which have themselves been formed as above described by cell-division. On the other hand, it may be set free. In this case the cell-wall is not secreted by it until after its

escape. It is, moreover, at first usually furnished with cilia, sometimes attached to one end as in the zoospores of *Cedogonium* (fig. 666, c), or over the whole surface as in those of *Vaucheria*.

The other mode of cell-production without cell-division is that of the fusion of two cells to form a new one. Like the last-described method, it occurs only in connection with the processes of reproduction. It is known as *conjugation*, and includes all the cases of the fusion of gametes already described. The cells taking part in the fusion are at the time naked cells, consisting of protoplasm and nucleus. They may be similar or dissimilar in size, may be set free from the cells in which they were formed, as in the case of the ciliated gametes of *Ulothrix* (fig. 609) or the spermatozoids of higher cryptogams, or may leave their parent cell only to pass into that of another gamete, as in *Spirogyra* (fig. 482) or possibly in *Achlya* (fig. 667), or may remain always in the cell in which they are developed, as is generally the case with oospheres. When the fusion takes place, protoplasm unites with protoplasm, nucleus with nucleus, &c., and a new cell results which clothes itself with a cell-wall, and becomes a new individual. The process of fusion of dissimilar cells is generally called *fertilisation*.

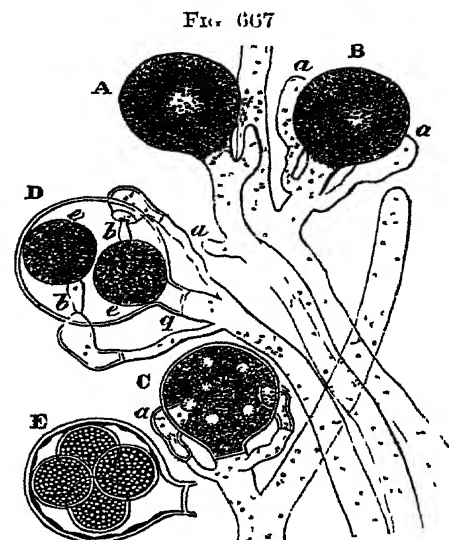


Fig. 667. Oogonium and antheridia of *Achlya tortuosa*, showing cell division. The letters A to E indicate the course of development. The protoplasm of a cell or branch of a cell collects into a globular form A, B, and by the formation of a septum, D, G, becomes an independent cell (the oogonium). The protoplasm then breaks up into two or more parts, D, E, E (oospheres), which quickly become spherical, and after possible fertilisation by the antheridia A, A, penetrating into the oogonium by their sacs, b, b, as seen in D, secrete a cell wall F, and become oospores. After Sachs.

The Tissues.

By one or other of the methods of cell-production described, the original unicellular plant becomes a multicellular body.

We have seen that its ultimate form may be that of a row of cells forming a filament, or a flat plate, one or a few cells thick, or, again, a mass of cells of very variable size and shape. In the production of the ordinary vegetative body of the plant, the new cells are produced by cell-division. In some cases every cell as it is produced possesses and retains the power of division, so that the plant can increase throughout its whole length. This is commonly the case with filamentous plants such as *Spirogyra*. In most cases however, the power of cell-division

FIG 668

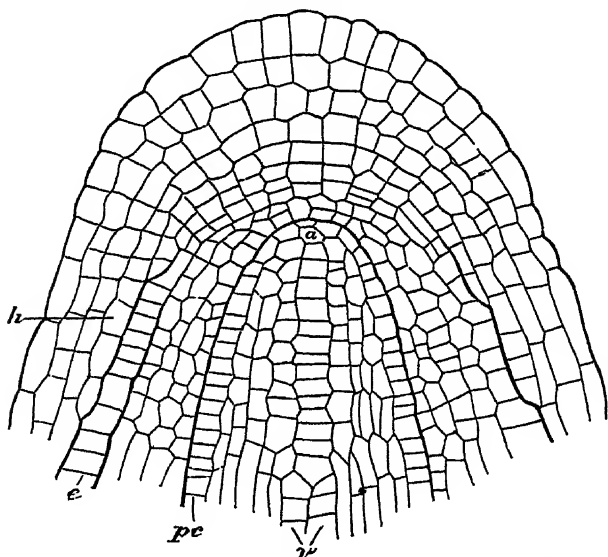


Fig 668 Small-celled meristem at apex of root of Phanerogam

speedily becomes localised at certain parts of the plant body, which then carry out all further increase in length. Such points are called *growing points*: they are generally terminal, and the cells of which they are composed, which have the power of cell-division, are called *merismatic cells*. The individual cells do not long retain this power, but after a period of growth take on various forms, and subsequently change but little during life, constituting *permanent tissue*. Finally they lose their protoplasm, and are no longer living.

There are two chief types of growing point which are found at the apices of the axis of the plant. In both, multiplication of cells leads to a continued advance forwards of the apex, and the youngest cells are in the front of the mass. The meristematic tissue is not of very great extent, and behind it the cells can be observed

FIG 669

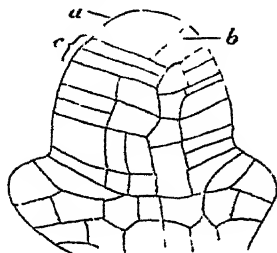


FIG. 670.

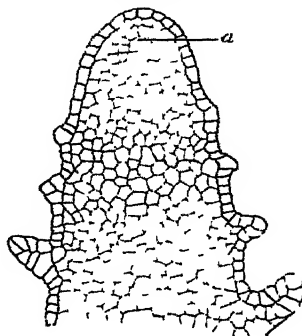
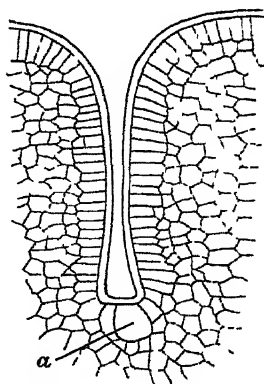


Fig 669 Growing point of stem of *Lycopodium* a Apical cell b, c Segment cut off from it—Fig 670. Growing point of stem of *Elodea* a Apical meristem After Kny—Fig 671 Growing point of *Pellaea* a Apical cell After Kny

FIG 671.



to be growing or increasing in size, and gradually passing over into permanent tissue

In the first type the cells which are thus dividing are all alike in appearance, and form a well-defined group which gradually becomes differentiated, as the cells get older, into various forms characteristic of different regions of the axis (figs 668-670). This small-celled meristem is always found in Phanerogams and in some Cryptogams. A growing point of this type is always more or less conical, two main lines of division of the cells can be seen, one parallel to the surface of the apex, or *periclinal*, the other at right angles to it, or *anticlinal*.

The other type is marked by the presence at the apex of a single large generally pyramidal cell, the base of the pyramid being

external (*fig* 669). From this, successive segments are cut off parallel to each side in turn, the apical cell growing to its original size after each division. In stems there is no segment cut off from the external face, but this takes place in roots, so that the apical cell is never exposed in the latter case (*fig* 769). The segments when cut off divide usually periclinally each into two; further divisions of each of the latter give rise to the mass of the tissue. Such a growing point may be conical or depressed, according to the amount of growth taking place in the inner or outer segments and the cells which arise from them (*figs* 669--671). This form of primary meristem, in which an apical cell is so prominent a feature, is chiefly characteristic of Cryptogams.

An intermediate form is met with in some of the Vascular Cryptogams in which a group of initial cells, frequently four in number, replaces the apical cell.

Besides these apical meristems, similar tissue occurs in other parts of the mass of the plant. These collections are chiefly connected with growth of the axis in thickness rather than in length, and will be treated of later in detail. The cells are either much like those of the small-celled meristem or are longer than broad. They exist in sheets or bands, usually one cell thick. They include the cambium and phellogens of stems and roots.

When cells are formed by cell-division in a growing point, the new cell-wall arises at right angles to the walls with which its edges are in contact. Hence at their first formation all such cells are cubical or nearly so. By growth in various directions, mutual pressure, &c, they change their shape and relative dimensions, giving rise to collections having very different appearances.

The cell-wall, at first thin and composed of cellulose, thickens as already described, and becomes chemically altered, giving rise to still more complicated structures.

In the early changes that take place, as permanent tissue is replacing meristem, we note that the original close contact of the cells becomes interrupted. During the changes of tension that occur in a growing mass of cells, the walls are caused to split at an angle where three or more are meeting, and so a small intercellular space is formed. The several spaces in a tissue extend till they communicate, and a system of intercellular channels is formed which extends throughout the plant, containing generally air. The intercellular space system so formed is very prominent in certain parts, especially in leaves and in the stems of aquatic plants (*fig.* 749).

The changes that take place in the composition of the cell-wall usually affect the primary septum between the cells in a different way from the successive thickening layers. The original wall can generally be distinguished in the thickened wall of stratified cells, when it is known as the middle lamella (fig. 677, *m*).

A collection of cells, the individuals of which remain more or less of equal diameter in all directions, is known as *parenchyma*. The cells may remain with thin walls or the latter may be thickened equally or unequally, giving rise to various modifications, of which the following are the more important —

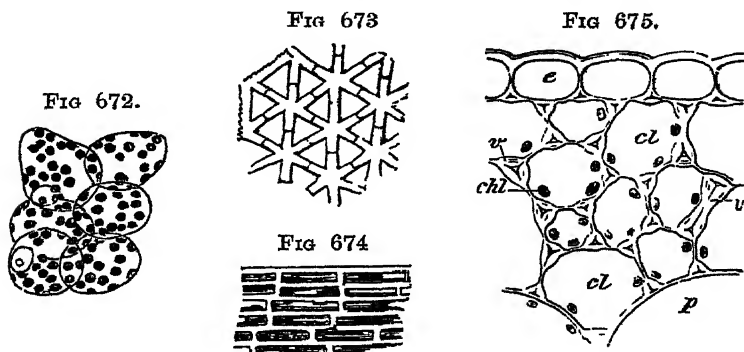


Fig 672 Round or oval parenchyma. In two of the cells a nucleus with a nucleolus may be seen — Fig 673 Stellate parenchyma, composed of stellate cells with three-cornered intercellular spaces — Fig 674 Muriform parenchyma — Fig 675 Transverse section of the petiole of a species of *Besonia*. *e* Epidermis with cuticle above and hypodermis below, the latter formed of collenchymatous cells *cl*, *cl*, with thickened angles *v*, *v*. *chl* Chlorophyll granules. *p* General parenchyma, below hypodermis. After Sachs.

a *Round or Oval Parenchyma* (fig 672).—This is formed of rounded or more or less oval cells, with small spaces between them. It commonly occurs in succulent plants, and also in those parts where the tissues are of a lax nature. It is connected by various transitional forms with—

b *Stellate Parenchyma*, which consists of stellate cells (figs 620 and 673), or cells with an irregular outline produced by projecting rays, and in contact only by the extremities of such rays, so as to leave large irregular spaces between them.

c *Regular or Polyhedral Parenchyma*.—This is formed of polyhedral cells, the faces of which are frequently nearly equal,

and so combined as to leave very small interspaces. It is commonly found in the pith of plants.

d *Elongated Parenchyma*—This is composed of cells elongated in a longitudinal direction so as to become cylindrical. It occurs frequently in the stems of Monocotyledonous plants.

e *Tabular Parenchyma* is that which consists of tabular, closely adherent cells. It is found in the epidermis and other external parts of plants (*fig. 675, e*). A variety of this kind of parenchyma is called *masonry*, because the cells of which it is composed resemble in their form and arrangement the courses of bricks in a wall (*fig. 674*). This variety occurs in the medullary rays of the stems of Dicotyledons and in corky formations.

Such are the commoner varieties of parenchyma, all of which are connected in various ways by transitional forms, but other special kinds also occur. Thus, in the tissue which is placed below the epidermis of plants, which has been termed the *hypodermis*, we sometimes find the parenchyma composed of cells which are especially thickened at their angles (*fig. 675, cl, cl*). This kind of parenchyma is called *collenchyma*, it never becomes lignified. Another variety of parenchyma is termed *sclerenchyma*; this consists of cells which have become much hardened by thickening layers and lignified, as in the stem of Palms. Collenchyma and sclerenchyma are also forms of plesenchyma.

In some of the lower orders of plants there is a peculiar kind of tissue present, to which the names of *Tela contexta* and *interlacing fibrilliform tissue* have been given. It occurs chiefly in the Fungi (*fig. 623*), and consists of very long thread-like cells, or strings of cells, simple or branched, with either thin, soft, readily destructible walls or dry and firm ones, the whole inextricably interwoven or entangled with each other so as to form a loose fibrilliform tissue. This tissue, which is usually known under the name of *hyphæ* or *hyphal tissue*, constitutes, as a general rule, the vegetative portion of all Fungi. In the larger Fungi this same tissue also forms a more compact structure at certain parts, as on their surface, where it is arranged as a kind of skin, and then constitutes what is termed *pseudo-parenchyma*.

The varieties of parenchyma as just described constitute the entire structure of the lower orders of plants, such as the Algæ, Fungi, and most Mosses, which are hence frequently termed Cellular Plants.

Besides these collections of isodiametric cells we find others whose length greatly exceeds their other diameters. In shape they are usually pointed, their ends overlapping, or extending in between the ends of their immediate neighbours. These collections constitute what is known as *prosenchyma*. As in the case of parenchyma the walls of these cells, or *fibres*, are sometimes unchanged cellulose, sometimes lignified, pitted, &c. Prosenchyma is largely present in woody tissues, but is not confined to them, but may be found as isolated strands occupying various positions in the plant body. A peculiar form of it constitutes the whole of the secondary wood of the *Coniferæ* (*fig.* 638),

FIG 676 FIG 677 FIG 678 FIG 679 FIG 680 FIG 681.

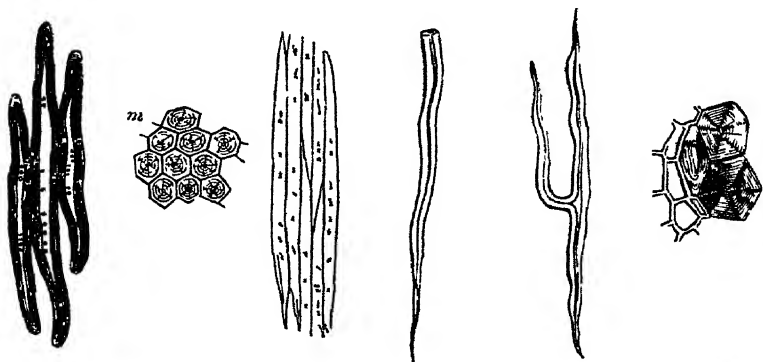


Fig 676 Prosenchymatous or wood-cells — *Fig* 677 Transverse section of prosenchymatous cells, showing the thickness of their walls *m* Middle lamella — *Fig* 678 Prosenchymatous cells in combination — *Fig* 679 Upper end of a bast fibre — *Fig* 680 Branched fibre After Schleiden — *Fig* 681 Transverse section of fibres, showing the thickness of their walls

where the fibres or tracheids are marked by the peculiar bordered pits already described. In some forms the fibres are branched (*fig* 680). The cells of collenchyma and sclerenchyma are frequently fibrous.

A further modification of the arrangement of cells is found in plants, constituting what is known as *vascular tissue*. The elements of this tissue are frequently fusions of cells, the end walls between them becoming absorbed to a greater or less extent. A row of cells whose separating walls have thus disappeared is known as a *vessel*. Two main kinds may be distinguished, *tracheal tissue* and *sieve tissue*.

TRACHEAL TISSUE.—This is usually composed of lignified cells which have lost their protoplasm. They are pitted in the various manners already described, forming spiral, annular, scalariform, or reticulated vessels (*fig* 682). When the end walls are completely absorbed they form true vessels or *tracheæ*. The absorption is not always complete, indeed, in some cases columns of such thickened cells are found where the end walls persist, and are thickened in the same way as the lateral ones. The individual cells are then known as *tracheids*.

FIG 682



FIG 683

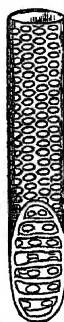


Fig 682 Beaded pitted vessel.—*Fig* 683 Pitted tracheid terminating obliquely, and showing that the partition wall has been incompletely absorbed

Tracheids occur in other forms than as the cells of a column; thus they constitute a somewhat parenchymatous-looking tissue in the sheath of the aerial roots of certain orchids. The peculiar fibres with bordered pits, occurring in the secondary wood of the *Coniferae*, are generally included under this term.

The chief forms of tracheal tissue, whether composed of tracheids or true vessels, may now be separately considered.

a. *Pitted or Dotted Vessels.*—A pitted vessel or row of tracheids is formed from a row of cylindrical pitted cells placed end to end (*fig* 682). This mode of origin from a row of cells of a similar pitted nature is clearly shown in many instances by the contractions which their sides exhibit at various intervals (*fig* 682); for these contractions evidently correspond

to the points where the component cells come in contact. Pitted vessels may be commonly found in the wood of Dicotyledons, they are mixed here with the ordinary wood-cells, but are much larger than these, indeed, they are generally among the largest occurring in any tissue.

It sometimes happens that when a pitted or other vessel has lost its fluid contents, the neighbouring parenchymatous cells push bladder-like portions of their membrane through the pores which exist in its wall, and then multiply by division, and form a cellular mass which may completely fill it, to this intra-cellular tissue the name of *tullen* or *thyloses* has been given. It may be well observed in the wood of the Oak, in that of *Robinia Pseud-acacia*, in *Periploca*, and in the stem of *Cucumis sativus*.

b. *Spiral Vessels*—This name is applied to vessels with

tapering extremities, having either one continuous spiral fibril, running from end to end, as is commonly the case (*fig. 684*), or two or more fibrils (*fig. 685*) running parallel to one another. The latter kind are well seen in the stem of the Banana and other allied plants, in the young shoots of the Asparagus, and in the Pitcher Plant. The fibril contained within the spiral vessel is generally so elastic as to admit of being uncoiled when the vessel is pulled asunder, in which case the wall is ruptured between the coils. This appearance may be commonly seen by the naked eye by partially breaking the young shoots, flower-stalks, or leaf-stalks of almost any plant, or the leaves of the Hyacinth, Banana, and others, and gently pulling asunder the two ends, when the uncoiled fibrils appear like a

FIG 684



FIG 685



FIG 686.



FIG 687.

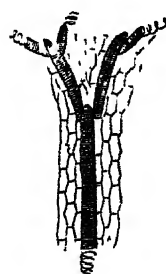


Fig. 684 Simple spiral vessel — *Fig. 685* Compound spiral vessel —
Fig. 686 Branched spiral vessel — *Fig. 687* Union of spiral vessels in
 an oblique manner

fine cobweb. In most cases the coils of the fibril are close together, so that the enclosing membrane cannot be observed between them, but in other instances they are more or less separated by portions of membrane (*fig. 686*). The fibril is generally turned to the right, as in the ordinary spiral cells, although instances occur in which it is wound in the opposite direction. Spiral vessels sometimes present a branched appearance; this is generally occasioned by the union of separate vessels in a more or less oblique manner (*fig. 687*), or occasionally, it is said, as in the Gourd and some other plants, by the branching of particular cells (*fig. 686*).

Spiral vessels occur in the earliest differentiated portions of the wood of vascular bundles. In size they vary from the $\frac{3}{16}$ to $\frac{5}{16}$ of an inch in diameter. The average size is about the $\frac{1}{16}$.

c *Annular Vessels*—In these vessels the fibril is arranged in the form of rings more or less regularly arranged upon their inner surface (figs. 688, r, 689, and 690) Sometimes the whole of the vessel presents this ringed appearance (figs. 689 and 690), while in other vessels we find two rings connected by one or more turns of a spiral, the two forms irregularly alternating with each other (fig. 691) In size they vary from about $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch in diameter Annular vessels occur especially in the wood of the fibro-vascular bundles of the stems of soft, rapidly growing herbaceous plants

d. *Reticulated Vessels*—In these vessels the convolutions are more or less irregular, and connected in various ways by

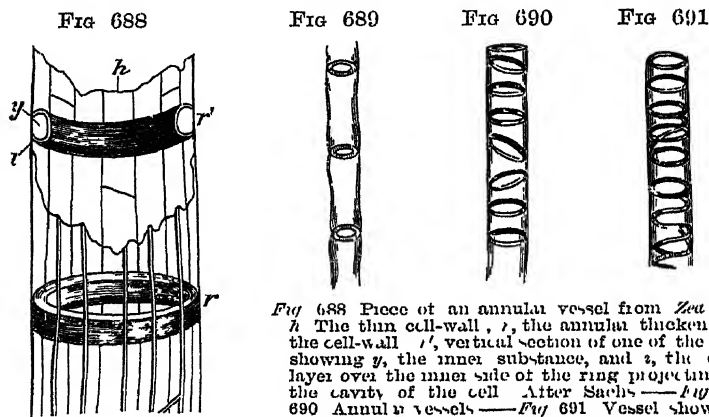


Fig. 688 Piece of an annular vessel from *Zebray*.
h The thin cell-wall, r, the annular thickening of the cell-wall, y, vertical section of one of the rings, showing y, the inner substance, and z, the denser layer over the inner side of the ring projecting into the cavity of the cell. After Sachs.—figs. 688, 690 Annular vessels.—fig. 691 Vessel showing a combination of rings and spiral fibres

cross or oblique bands, so as to produce a branched or netted appearance (fig. 692)

e *Scalariform Vessels*—The peculiar appearance of these vessels is owing to their walls being marked by elongated transverse pits or lines, arranged over one another like the steps of a ladder, whence their name (figs. 693 and 694) They are sometimes cylindrical tubes like the other vessels, as in the Vine (fig. 694), and in many other Dicotyledons, in which condition they resemble modifications of reticulated vessels, but in their more perfect state, scalariform vessels assume a prismatic form, as in Ferns (fig. 693), of which they are then very characteristic, though sometimes they may be found elsewhere.

The scalariform markings are often caused in the same way

as those of bordered pits (see page 287), the thin places, instead of being small and circular, being broad and extending quite across the side of the cell

The *annular*, *reticulated*, and *scalariform vessels* have commonly tapering points like the spiral vessels, and thus overlap at their extremities when they come in contact (*fig 693*). But in other instances they terminate more or less obliquely, or by flattened ends, like most pitted vessels

FIG 692



FIG 693



FIG 694



Fig 692 Reticulated vessel — Fig 693 Prismatic scalariform vessels of a Fern — Fig 694 Cylindrical scalariform vessels of the Vine

SIEVE TISSUE — This is generally associated with some form of tracheal tissue in certain strands of tissue known as vascular bundles. It may, however, exist as isolated masses in either the pith or cortex of stems, and it is generally so found in roots. The cells of which it is composed are thin-walled and never lignified. Two kinds of cell are found in it in the most highly developed forms, the sieve tube proper and its companion cells. The sieve tube is composed of a number of cells or segments placed end to end. The separating wall is seldom much thickened, but has deposited upon it on both sides a peculiar material known as *callus*, probably a modification of cellulose. The separating wall generally forms a *sieve plate*, being perforated by a number of apertures, which are lined by the callus deposit, and through which the contents of the two segments communicate. The protoplasm of the sieve tube is considerably changed, being with the exception of a lining layer transformed into a slimy material which is especially conspicuous in the neighbourhood of the sieve plate. The adult tube contains no nucleus.

The companion cells are so called because they are cut off from the sieve-tube segments at the time of their first appearance. They are smaller in diameter than the tube itself, and contain protoplasm and nuclei.

In the Angiosperms the sieve plates at the end of summer become blocked up by an addition to the callus, and remain closed during the winter, communication being re-established in the spring. Sieve plates occur often upon the lateral as well as the end walls of the segments. In most Vascular Cryptogams they are confined to the former position, and are very numerous in each tube.

FIG 695

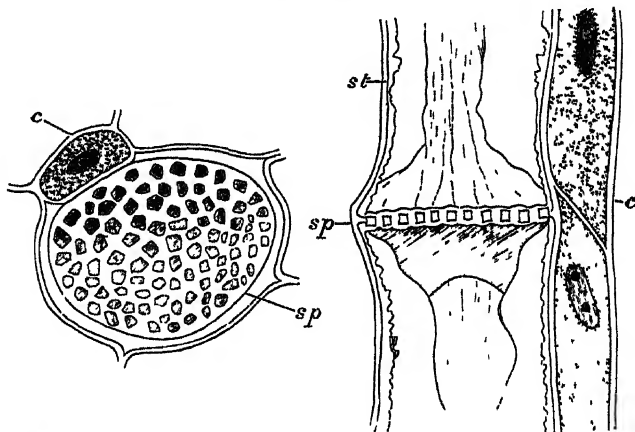


Fig 695 Sieve tubes and companion cells from the stem of *Cucurbita*, in transverse and longitudinal section. *st* Sieve tube *sp* Sieve plate *c* Companion cells $\times 540$ After Strasburger

Below the Angiosperms, sieve tissue contains no companion cells.

Tissue much like sieve tissue occurs in certain regions of the thallus of one of the brown seaweeds (*Macrocystis*). In some others of the *Laminarias* similar structures are found, which are called *trumpet hyphae*. It is, however, doubtful if their segments communicate.

The three forms of tissue thus described, viz. parenchyma, prosenchyma, and vascular tissue, combined in various ways, are found generally in the plant body. Besides these, other forms of tissue are found in certain cases, having, however, a much

more limited distribution. We may here briefly describe the most important of these.

Laticiferous Tissue.—Of this, two types occur. In the Euphorbias, and some plants belonging to the *Apocynaceæ* and *Asclepiadaceæ*, long, much-branched cells occur irregularly distributed throughout the plant (fig 698). They have often thick walls, and are filled with a curious milky-looking fluid known as *latex*, from which the name of the tissue is derived. In the *Compositæ*, *Papaveraceæ*, and other Natural Orders, ramifying tubular structures are found, much like the former, but composed of rows of thin-walled parenchymatous cells, the partition-walls of which have been absorbed. These, from their containing a similar milky

FIG 696

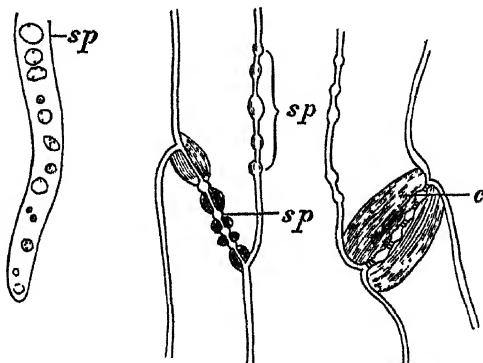


Fig 696 Sieve tubes of *Rhamnus purshiana* sp Sieve plates c Callus $\times 320$

or watery fluid, are known as *laticiferous vessels* (fig 697). Laticiferous vessels generally form an anastomosing network.

A modification of this tissue is found in some monocotyledonous plants, forming what are known as *utricular vessels*. These resemble laticiferous vessels in one particular, as they contain latex, in which are generally true raphides; on the other hand, they are unbranched and analogous to sieve tubes in form, consisting as they do of long, broad cells with sieve-like septa. They were first noticed by Hanstein in the scales of the bulb of *Allium*.

Glandular Tissue.—This has a much more limited distribution than the laticiferous tissue. It consists of single cells or of masses of cells of various shapes, sometimes long columns, sometimes ovoid or rounded collections. The cells which com-

pose these masses are distinguished by their power of forming peculiar, generally aromatic, substances, which either remain stored in the cells or are passed out into intercellular spaces or cavities or to the exterior

The cells are usually parenchymatous and filled with very granular protoplasm. The collections of such cells are commonly called glands, a name which is also applied to the cavities containing secretions, though the cells which formed them may have disappeared

The glandular tissue may be a solid mass of cells, as in the nectaries of such flowers as *Fritillaria*, it may form a

FIG 697

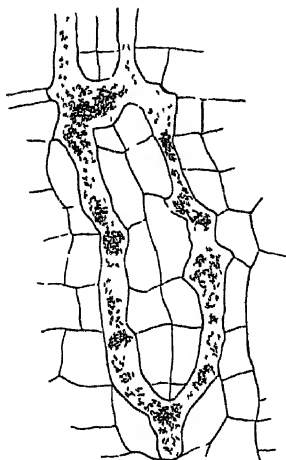


FIG 698

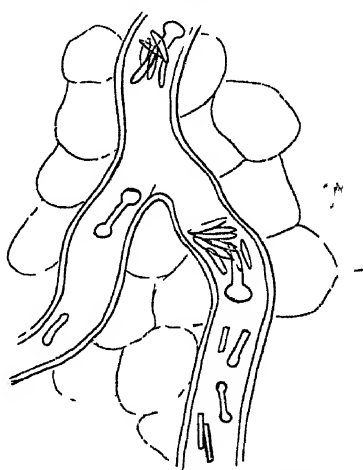


Fig 697 Laticiferous vessels (cell fusions) in *Scorzenera* root $\times 250$
 Fig 698 Part of laticiferous cell from stem of *Euphorbia splendens* $\times 250$

passage or cavity, lined with cells and containing the secretion, as in the resin canals of *Pinus* and other *Coniferae*, or in the globular receptacles for essential oil in the leaves of the Rue, the rind of the Orange, &c

These passages may originate in two ways. In the case of the resin ducts of *Pinus*, a group of cells may be seen in a transverse section, corresponding to a column of cells of some length. The cells separate from each other, so as to leave a passage in the centre, by continued separation and multiplication of the number of the cells surrounding the channel, a duct is formed lined by a delicate layer which secretes the resinous

matter, and pours it out into the passage. This mode of origin is called *schizogenous* (fig. 700)

In the case of the oil-glands of the Rue, Orange, &c., a small

FIG. 699.

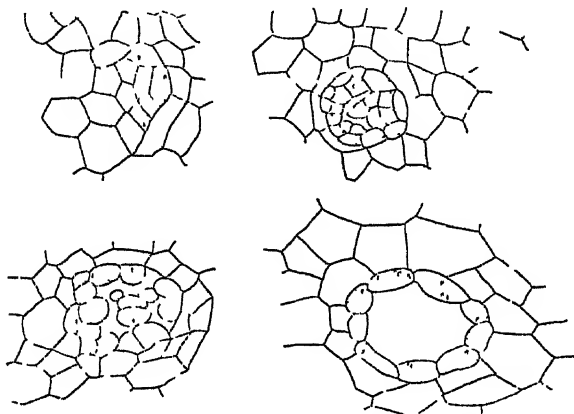


FIG. 699 Development of lysigenous gland in stem of *Hypericum*. The four figures represent successive stages. $\times 250$

solid group of cells is formed from generally a single cell by repeated division. The protoplasm of these becomes charged with drops of the secretion, and the cell-walls in the centre of the mass degenerate and break down, leaving a cavity filled with the secretion and with the remains of the cytoplasm of the disintegrated cells. Sometimes a peripheral layer does not disappear, so that the cavity remains lined with secreting cells. This mode of origin is termed *lysigenous* (fig. 699)

Occasionally both these methods may be met with in the formation of a gland.

Besides these forms of glandular tissue isolated cells or single rows of cells containing secretion are not uncommon. They may contain tannin, mucilage, or other secretions. They are generally parenchymatous and thin-walled.

FIG. 700

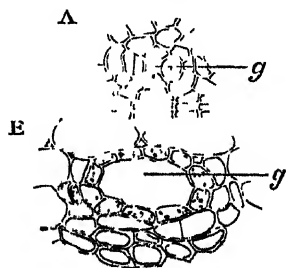


FIG. 700 Schizogenous resin duct in the young stem of the Ivy (*Hedera helix*), transverse section ($\times 400$). A. An early, B. A later, stage. g. The resin ducts

CHAPTER III

TISSUE SYSTEMS.

THE combination of cells into tissues which we have now examined is an indication that in a cell mass such as constitutes the body of most plants there exists a division of labour; that instead of each cell practically living for itself alone, as is the case in the simplest forms, each takes a definite share in the common life work of the whole organism. This division of labour is the explanation of the differentiation of the structure which we have seen, the forms and arrangement of the cells being such as enable them to discharge their special functions most advantageously. Generally in the sporophyte of the Phanerogams and Vascular Cryptogams three main systems of tissue can be distinguished, each of which, though possessing broadly characteristic features of its own, may include more than one form of the tissues that have been described. These are the *epidermal* or *tegumentary*, chiefly protective in character; the *fibro-vascular*, which is mainly concerned in the conduction of fluids through the plant body, and the *ground* or *fundamental*, which is limited externally by the epidermal, and through which the fibro-vascular bundles pass. It is concerned principally with the metabolic work of the plant, and to a less degree with its mechanical support. None of these is exclusively the seat of the function assigned to it as its chief work. Thus in most of the higher plants the epidermis is comparatively short-lived in many parts, and the work of protection is then taken up by particular tissues belonging to the fundamental tissue; the latter also often includes certain forms of conducting tissue. In the gametophytes of these and of the lower plants the differentiation into these three systems is not nearly so complete. In most only the epidermal and ground tissues are represented, in some only the latter. In the Mosses there is a solid central portion which though not truly vascular tissue is an indication of it.

In a growing point of the sporophytes mentioned above, whose structure has been described, indications of these three systems can be seen. In *fig. 701* we have a representation of such a growing point. The outer layer of cells is seen to be continuous

over the surface, it forms the *dermatogen* which when adult becomes known as the *epidermis*. Centrally there is a mass of cells which show a general tendency to become longer than broad. This is known as the *plerome* it develops into a bulky strand or cylinder of tissue known as the *stèle*, in which well-defined collections of cells known as *vascular bundles* originate. Between the two there is a cylinder of tissue known as the *periblem*, which consists of ground or fundamental tissue. In some growing points with small-celled meristems these three systems can be seen to originate in definite layers of the meristem. In further

development the *stèle* is usually found to contain a certain amount of ground tissue besides the vascular bundles. We may, therefore, distinguish between *stelar* and *extra-stelar* ground tissue, the latter only arising from the *periblem*.

FIG 701

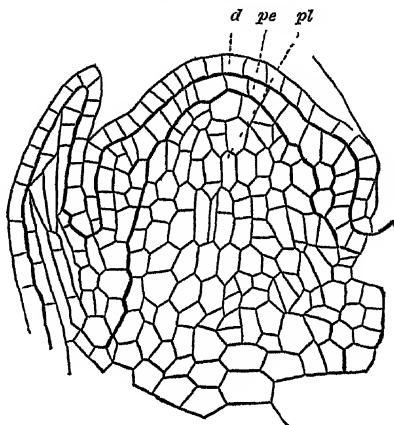


Fig. 701 Growing point of the stem of a Dicotyledon. *Atter Douhet* *d* Dermatogen *pe* Periblem *pl* Plerome *z* Young leaf

THE EPIDERMAL TISSUE SYSTEM.

The body of nearly all plants which consist of a mass of cells is covered by a thin membrane composed of a sheet of cells. In the shoots of the higher plants this is derived from the entire dermatogen, and is known as the *epidermis*. It is usually only one cell thick. In the roots the dermatogen gives rise at the apex to many layers of cells, forming the root-cap. In most Dicotyledons the innermost of these layers is continued backwards over the surface, and bears the root-hairs, being known as the *paliferous layer*. In the roots of Mono-

cotyledons and Cryptogams the true epidermis only persists at the apex, forming as before a many-layered root-cap. The root bears a piliferous layer, but it is in these cases the external layer of the periblem. The external layer of roots is consequently not a true epidermis; it is generally termed the *epiblema*.

The cells of the dermatogen are somewhat oblong when seen in section, and are usually rich in protoplasm. As they grow older the walls become thickened, especially on the outer surface. Viewed from the surface they present a great variety of outline. The thickened walls become cuticularised to a variable extent, but particularly their outer layers. In very thick-walled cells these outer cuticularised layers can often be stripped off, forming a sort of detachable structureless membrane, termed the *cuticle* (*fig.* 705). As they grow older they lose a great deal of their protoplasmic contents, and are filled with little more than water. The outer layers are often impregnated with wax, which sometimes is so great in quantity that a coating of waxy particles is found to be deposited on the exterior.

The cells of the epidermis in the lower forms and in some aquatic members of the flowering plants contain chloroplastids, but as a general rule these are absent from them. The epidermis of aquatic plants does not become cuticularised. Though usually only one cell thick, there are many cases where the epidermis consists of several layers. In the leaves of certain plants, such as *Ficus* (*fig.* 642), there are two or three layers. In the root-cap (*fig.* 763, p. 370) we have several layers, in various aerial roots, such as those of epiphytic Orchids, there is a special epidermis consisting of many layers of cells which have curiously pitted walls and no cell-contents.

The cells of the epidermis are with certain exceptions in close contact with each other, forming a continuous covering to the plant without any intercellular spaces. This continuous coating is, however, interrupted at the apex of shoots whose growing point is marked by the presence of an apical cell (*fig.* 706), the latter always being external. In some shoots, as in the thallus of *Pelvetia*, the growing point is depressed, in consequence of the growth of the lateral segments of the apical cell (*fig.* 707).

The epidermis of the shoot in all sporophytes presents a number of intercellular spaces, produced by the splitting of the common wall of two contiguous cells, known as guard-cells,

immediately over a conspicuous intercellular space of the subjacent region. These apertures, known as *stomata*, may be regarded as the means of communication between the intercellular space system and the outer air.

FIG. 702.

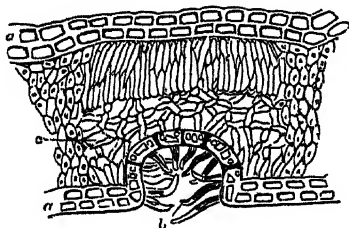


FIG. 703

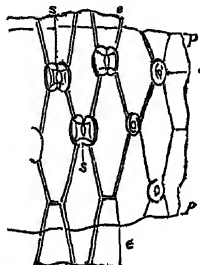


Fig. 702 Vertical section through the leaf of a *Banksia*. *a, a* Epidermis. *c* Spongy parenchyma. *b* Hairs which are contained in little depressions on the under surface of the leaf, and at whose base peculiar stomata are found. After Schleiden. — Fig. 703 Epidermal tissue from the leaf of the *Iris* (*Iris germanica*). *p, p* Cuticle. *s, s, s* Oval stomata. *e, e* Epidermal cells. After Jussieu.

The cells of the epidermis are often prolonged outwards in the form of hairs, or trichomes. These are borne alike upon the

FIG. 704.

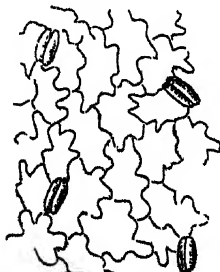


FIG. 705

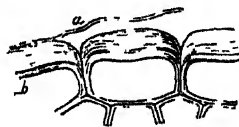


Fig. 704 Sinuous epidermis with stomata, from the garden Balsam. — Fig. 705. Vertical section of the epidermis of *Stoya car nova* treated with caustic potash. *a*. The detached cuticle. *b* The thickened anticlinal layers of the outer walls of the epidermal cells. After Mohl.

sporophyte and the gametophyte. They present considerable variety of form and structure.

Stomata. — These are orifices situated between the sides of

some of the epidermal cells, and opening into the intercellular cavities beneath, so as to allow a free communication between the internal tissues and the external air (*figs* 708, s, and 709, s).

FIG 706.

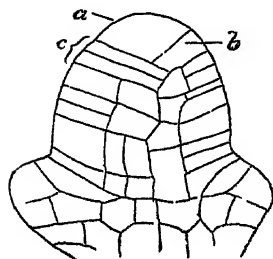


FIG 707.

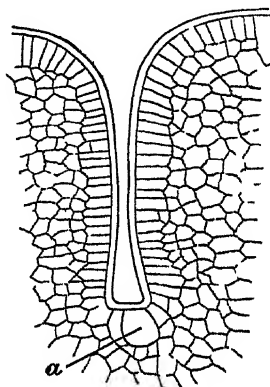


Fig 706 Growing point of shoot of *Equisetum arvense* $\times 250$ *a* Apical cell *b*, *c* Successive segments cut off from it—*Fig* 707 Growing point of the thallus of *Peltandra* *a* Apical cell $\times 250$ After Kny

The orifices are surrounded by cells with thinner walls and of a different form from those of the other epidermal cells; they also contain some chlorophyll grains. There are generally

FIG 708.



Fig 708 Vertical section of the epidermis of the *Iris* *s* The stoma *e*, *e* Epidermis *p* Parenchyma beneath the epidermis *i* Intercellular space into which the stoma opens

but two cells surrounding the orifice, and these are commonly of a more or less semilunar form. These bordering cells are called 'guard-cells,' and have the power of opening or closing the orifice which they surround according to circumstances, as will be explained hereafter when treating of the functions of stomata in the part devoted to the Physiology of Plants.

Upon making a vertical section through a stoma we usually find that the guard-cells are placed nearly or quite on a level with those of the epidermis. In some cases, however, and especially when situated upon leaves of a leathery or hardened

texture, the stomatal cells are below the epidermal ones, while in some rare instances, again, they are above them.

FIG 709

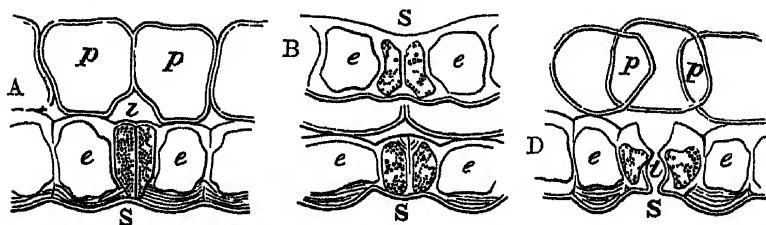


Fig 709 *p, p* Parenchyma of the leaf *e, e* Epidermis cells *s*. Stoma
z Air-cavity In these figures the development of the stoma of *Hyacinthus orientalis* is represented from the first division of the mother-cell in A into two daughter-cells, to the complete separation shown in D After Sachs

The stomata vary in form and position in different plants, and in different parts of the same plant, but they are always the same in any particular part of a plant. They are either placed singly upon the epidermis, at regular (fig. 703) or irregular intervals, or in clusters, the intervening epidermis having none (fig 710). The former is the more common arrangement. In *Banksia* and some other plants we find little cavities in the under surface of the leaves which contain a number of hairs (fig. 702, *b*), and between them, at their base, very small stomata.

The number of stomata varies considerably. The following table will give some idea of their abundance in leaves, and it will be observed that the number of stomata is usually greatest in those leaves where they are entirely absent from their upper surface.

FIG 710

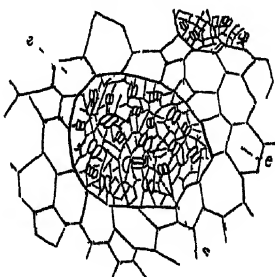


Fig 710 Epidermis of the leaf of a species of *Nerifraga*, showing clustered water-pores, *s*, with intervening spaces, *e, e*, in which they are absent

Stomata in one Square Inch of Surface.

	Upper surface	Lower surface
Mezereon . . .	none	4,000
Pæony .	none	13,790
Vine	none	13,600
Olive	none	57,600
Holly .	none	63,600
Laurustinus	none	90,000
Cheiry-lauiel	none	90,000
Lilac .	none	160,000
Hydrangea	none	160,000
Mistletoe	200	200
Tradescantia	2,000	2,000
House Leek	10,710	6,000
Garden Flag	11,572	11,572
Aloe .	25,000	20,000
Yucca	40,000	40,000
Clove Pink	38,500	38,500

The distribution of stomata over the surface of the sporophyte varies very much. They are found especially upon leaves, more particularly on their under surface. On the floating leaves of water plants, as in the Water-lily, however, we find them only on the upper surface, while in vertical leaves the stomata are equally distributed on the two surfaces. They occur also on the young green stem and branches of plants, and on parts of the flower. In those plants which have no foliage leaves, as the *Cactaceæ*, they abound upon the green succulent stems. They are absent, as a rule, from roots and all submersed parts of plants.

Though the guard-cells of stomata can usually vary the size of the opening, or altogether close it, according to circumstances, this is not universally the case. In some plants large stomata occur whose guard-cells cannot change their form sufficiently to do this. These, which are known as *water-stomata* or *water-pores*, are chiefly concerned in the excretion of water, the ordinary form being adapted to regulate the escape of watery vapour only.

Hairs or Trichomes—These are prolongations externally of the epidermal cells. Each consists of a *foot* or part embedded among the other epidermal cells, and a *body* or part extending outwards. They may be unicellular or multicellular, and either kind may be variously forked or branched. The component cells of multicellular hairs may be variously arranged. Commonly they are placed end to end in a single row, so that the hairs assume a more or less cylindrical form. Both multi-

cellular and unicellular hairs, again, instead of being erect, may develop horizontally in a more or less circular manner, and form *stellate hairs*, as in the Ivy, in *Deutzia scabra*, &c.; or the component cells may develop in opposite directions from another cell raised above the level of the epidermis, so as to produce what is termed a *shield-like* or *peltate hair*.

Scales are modifications of stellate hairs. They may be defined as flattened, membranous, more or less rounded plates, attached by the centre, and presenting a more or less irregular margin from the unequal prolongation of the component cells. These scales are particularly abundant on the surface of some plants, to which they communicate a scurfy or silvery appearance, as in the *Elwagnus*.

Other modifications of hairs which are allied to the above are the *ramenta* or *ramentaceous hairs* so frequently found upon the stems and petioles of Ferns. These consist of a layer of cells combined so as to form a brownish flattened scale attached by its base to the surface of the epidermis from which it grows.

Hairs must be distinguished from prickles and some other allied structures, as warts &c, which arise from the sub-epidermal tissue as well as the epidermis, and which have been termed *emergences*. These, again, should be carefully distinguished from *spines*, which we have seen to be abortive branches

The ordinary hairs above described are either empty, or they contain fluid of a watery nature, which may be colourless or coloured.

Hairs occur upon various parts of plants; their more common position is upon the leaves, stems, and young branches, but they may also be found on the flower-stalks, bracts, parts of the flower, the fruit, and the seed. On young roots we find also cells prolonged beyond the surface which are of the nature of hairs, and have therefore been termed *root-hairs* (fig. 711). The hairs which occur on the parts of the flower frequently play an indirect part in the process of fertilisation by collecting the pollen which falls from the anthers; hence such are termed *collecting hairs*. The collecting hairs, which occur on the style of the species of *Campanula*, are peculiar from their upper

FIG. 711

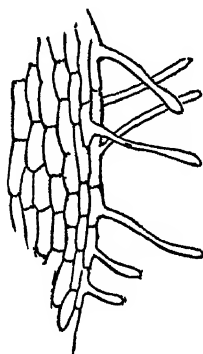


FIG. 711 Root-hairs on the surface of a young root

end retracting within their lower, at the period of fertilisation

Besides the forms of glandular tissue already described, certain secretions are formed in peculiar hairs. These may arise from a single cell of the epidermis or from several. In some cases the secretion is formed inside one or more cells, in others it is due to a degeneration of the cell-wall, and then accu-

FIG 712

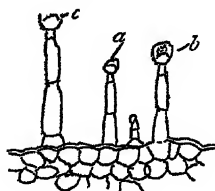


FIG 713

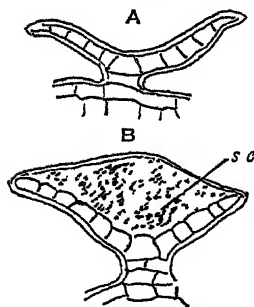


FIG 714



FIG 715



Fig 712 Glandular hairs from *Primula sinensis* a Young hair. b Hair showing secretion formed in the cell-wall of the terminal cell c Hair after discharge of the secretion — Fig 713 Glandular hairs from *Ilon* A Young hair B Mature hair s Secretion under the cuticle — Fig 714 Sting of a species of *Malpighia* e Epidermis b, b, g Glandular apparatus — Fig 715 Sting of the common Nettle (*Urtica dioica*), consisting of a single cell with a bulbous expansion at its base, b, and terminated above by a swelling, s, and containing a granular irritating fluid, f, f u e Epidermal cells surrounding its base

mulates under the cuticle of the terminal cell or cells (figs. 712 and 713). These glandular hairs or external glands may be sessile or stalked. If sessile they present various appearances, and consist, like the former, of either one secreting cell, or of two or more. Those with one secreting cell placed above the level of the epidermis are frequently termed *papillae*, and it is to their presence upon the surface of the Ice-plant (*Mossmbryanthemum*

crystallinum) that the peculiar crystalline appearance of that plant is due.

When a sessile gland contains an irritating fluid, and is prolonged above into one or more hair-like processes, which are placed horizontally (*fig* 714), or vertically (*fig* 715), we have a *sting* formed.

In the Nettle (*fig* 715) the sting consists of a single cell, enlarged at its base, *b*, by an irritating fluid *f*, *f*, which it contains, and tapering upwards to near the apex, when it again expands into a rounded or pointed head, *s*. The enlarged base is closely invested by a dense layer of epidermal cells, *w e*, which forms a kind of case to it. In touching a Nettle lightly the knob-like head, *s*, is broken off, and the sharp point of the sting then left enters the skin, while the irritating fluid is pushed up at the same time into the wound by the pressure occasioned by the elastic force of the surrounding epidermal cells, *w e*.

THE GROUND OR FUNDAMENTAL TISSUE SYSTEM

Underneath the epidermis in the gametophyte of all cellular plants which show any differentiation of tissues, we find a mass of cells which constitutes the ground or fundamental tissue. In the sporophyte of the vascular plants, which is there the prominent form, we can distinguish in addition a central stele or stoles, largely composed of vascular tissue, but containing some fundamental or conjunctive tissue interspersed among the latter (*figs.* 716 and 717). The fundamental tissue in these forms may be spoken of as extra-stelar and stelar respectively, the former derived from the periblem, the latter from the plerome. If there be a single stele the extra-stelar fundamental tissue constitutes what is known as the cortex, and has the form of a hollow cylinder.

The *stelar* or *intra-stelar* conjunctive tissue has various modes of arrangement in different axes.

Generally ground tissue is composed of parenchyma, the cells being polygonal in outline and thin-walled, with intercellular spaces between the cells. Sometimes the walls are slightly thickened, and then show pits upon their surfaces. The tissue may contain, however, fibres or masses of sclerenchyma or collenchyma, especially when the vascular bundles of the stele are not well developed.

These masses are arranged in different ways, sometimes as

a sheath underlying the epidermis, sometimes as isolated strands in the substance of the cortex or the pericycle or external layer of the stele, sometimes as sheaths or masses, in contact with the vascular bundles. They may be connected together in various ways, and thus form a supporting tissue supplementing the vascular bundles. These sclerenchymatous and collenchymatous masses with the hardened elements of the vascular bundles are often spoken of as the *stercome* of the plant.

The cells of the parenchyma retain their protoplasm, and are largely concerned in the metabolic processes of the plant. The outer layers frequently contain chloroplastids, starch, &c. Gene-

FIG. 716.

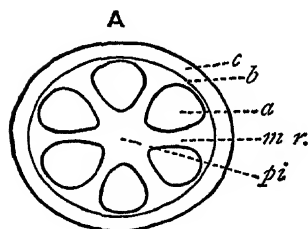


FIG. 717

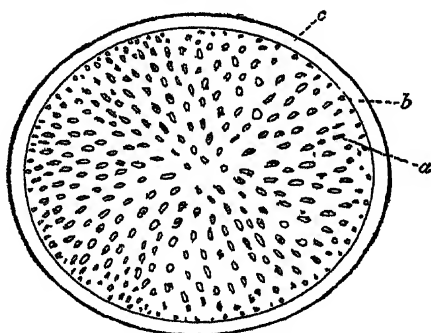


Fig 716 Diagram of section of monostelic stem of dicotyledonous plant
c Cortex b Limit of stele a Vascular bundle.—Fig 717 Diagram
of section of monostelic stem of monocotyledonous plant a Vascular
bundles c Cortex b Limit of stele

rally in the axis of vascular plants the external layers of the cortex differ to a variable extent from those nearer the centre, and can be recognised as a well-marked region, often called the hypodermis. The innermost layer, which abuts upon the stele, or steles if there are more than one, constitutes the *endodermis*.

The hypodermis is often found to contain supporting tissue. In many stems it is composed entirely of layers of sclerenchyma, as in the rhizomes of many ferns and species of *Equisetum*. In succulent petioles it is often composed of collenchyma.

In roots the hypodermis is the second layer of the cortex, and is known as the *exodermis* (fig. 718). Its walls are usually

strongly cuticularised, so that it forms a strongly protective layer. In Monocotyledons it persists throughout the life of the root, in Dicotyledons it is soon shed and replaced by a deeper corky formation. In some plants the exodermis is several layers of cells in thickness.

In foliage leaves the hypodermis sometimes shows a large development of sclerenchyma, as in many of the Coniferæ (*fig. 719, h*). In the leaves of certain Monocotyledons it consists of *aqueous tissue*, being made up of thin-walled parenchymatous cells which contain little more than water, and are packed close together without intercellular spaces. Some succulent leaves have their ground tissue entirely composed of this.

The general ground tissue shows a peculiar character in foliage leaves, the cells, though parenchymatous, not being at all like those of the stem. On one or both sides they are found to

FIG 718.

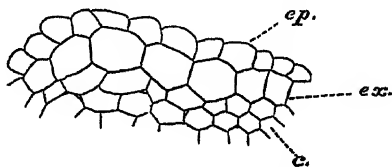


Fig 718 Outer part of root of Hyacinth *ep* Epidermis *ex* Exodermis *c* Cortex
× 250

FIG. 719

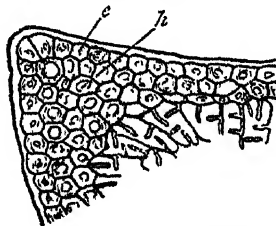


Fig 719 Portion of transverse section of leaf of *Pinus* *e* Epidermis, *h* Hypodermis *sp* Spongy parenchyma

FIG 720

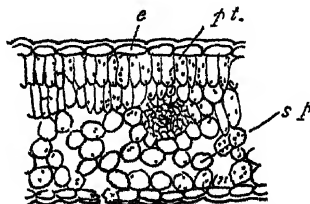


Fig 720 Section of leaf of *Beta* *e* Epidermis *p.t.* Palisade tissue *sp* Spongy parenchyma

be elongated and arranged in one or several rows, with their long axes at right angles to the surface. They have a number of chloroplasts embedded in their protoplasm. From their mode of arrangement they have been called *palisade tissue* (*fig. 720, p.t.*). If this tissue is only on the upper side of the leaf, the lower side shows more irregularly arranged chlorophyll-

containing tissue which from the looseness of its arrangement has been called *spongy parenchyma* (fig 720, *sp*) It is chiefly remarkable for its abundant intercellular spaces

The general ground tissue of the cortex may contain many other kinds of tissue already described; resin ducts, laticiferous tissue, &c., all occur in different plants.

Crossing the cortical tissue of the stem we find branches of the stele passing out to the leaves. As we shall see later, the latter are derived from the periblem and dermatogen of the stem, the pterome taking no part in their formation. We find in this way that parts of the periblem give rise to vascular tissue, though the chief place of origin of the latter is the pterome. The strands of vascular tissue thus derived are known as *leaf-trace bundles*

In rare cases certain strands of vascular tissue are found in the cortex, taking a course down the stem for some distance

FIG. 721

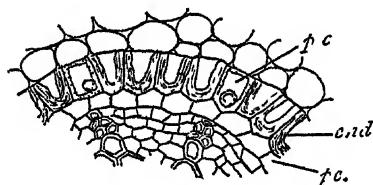


FIG. 722.

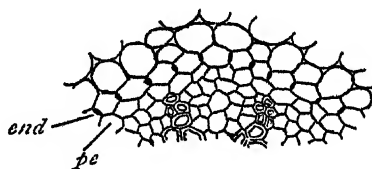


Fig 721 Endodermis and pericycle of root of *Lilium* end Endodermis.
pc Passage cell pe Pericycle — Fig 722 Endodermis of root with
coggled thickening

parallel to the stele. These are generally leaf-trace bundles, which ultimately curve and join the bundles of the stele.

The innermost layer of the cortex is the endodermis. This forms a band of peculiar character round the stele, or round each stele if there be more than one. The cells composing this layer are sometimes thickened uniformly, or on the side facing the stele and on the lateral walls. they are more commonly thin-walled with a peculiar ladder like thickening band extending round their radial and upper and lower surfaces. This in section gives the appearance of fig. 722. In other cases, particularly in stems, the endodermis is only recognisable with difficulty

In rare cases, as in the roots of *Equisetum* and the stems of certain Ferns, the endodermis consists of two layers.

In the cortex a further modification of ground tissue is

developed in all those stems which grow in thickness. This is the tissue known as *cork*, or *periderm*. It is not confined to the cortex, though the latter is the chief seat of its formation. It may be formed in the cells of the epidermis or from some part of the tissue of the stele. In most cases it arises from the outermost layer of the hypodermis becoming meristematic, and dividing repeatedly by tangential walls forming a layer, often several cells thick, of brick-shaped cells without interspaces (*fig* 723, *per*). The cell-walls remain thin, but generally become completely suberised. The meristematic layer of cells is known as the *phellogen* (*fig* 723, *ph*), it is classed as a *secondary* meristem, the cells regaining the power of dividing after having assumed the condition of permanent tissue.

Sometimes it is not the outer layer of the hypodermis which becomes *phellogen*, but one deeper in the cortex. The depth varies in different stems: it may be seated so far inwards as to be within the limits of the stele. It never extends within the wood of the vascular bundles. Sometimes many *phellogens* are developed in succession, each of which gives rise to a *periderm* layer.

Whatever be its origin, it gives rise to the same form of tissue, externally *periderm*, and internally often to a secondary cortex known as *phelloderm*.

A variety of ordinary *periderm* is formed in some cases by strata of thickened or hardened

cells occurring among the thin-walled suberised ones. This is the case when the activity of the same *phellogen* is maintained for several years. In roots, *periderm* is found less frequently in the hypodermis; generally the *phellogen* arises in the external layer of the stele, known as the *pericycle*. It may or may not be accompanied by a development of *phelloderm*. In leaves the occurrence

FIG 723

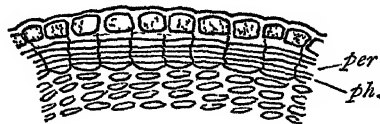


Fig 723 Outer portion of cortex of young stem of Lime. *ph* Phellogen
per Periderm or cork

FIG 724

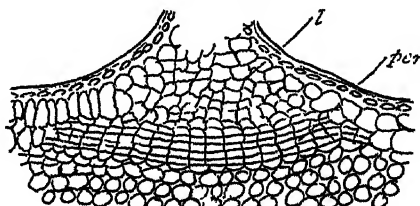


Fig 724 Section of lenticel (*l*)
per Periderm.

of cork is rare. It is found in the scales of the winter-bud of the Horse-chestnut, and in the petiole of *Hoya carnosa* and a few other plants

Cork is usually formed as a covering over any portion of the interior of most parts of plants exposed to the air in consequence of injury. The injury stimulates the exposed uninjured cells

FIG 725

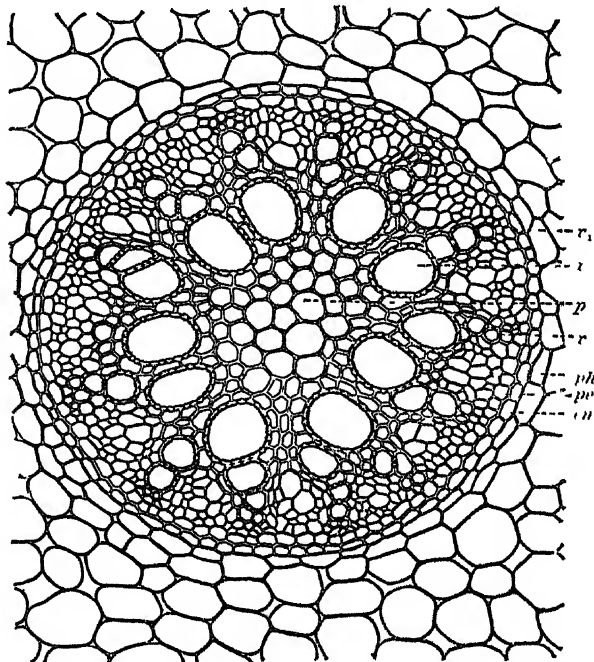


Fig 725 Section of stele of root. After Kny. *en* Endodermis. *pe* Peri cycle. *r* Xylem bundles, the protoxylem, *r*₁, abutting on the pericycle. *ph* Phloem bundles alternating with the bundles of xylem. *p*, Pith, or conjunctive tissue of the stele.

to merismatic activity, and a phellogen is formed over the wound

Cork is found in all stems and roots that increase in thickness, in most Dicotyledons and Gymnosperms, some Monocotyledons; and in *Marattiaceae* and *Ophioglossaceae* among the Cryptogams. It does not occur in herbaceous plants.

The development of cork and its effect upon the structure of the stem and root in woody plants will be further discussed in connection with the anatomy of these members.

From the character of its cell-walls and the arrangement of its cells, the cork forms a layer impervious to the passage of water or gases. At certain places in both stems and roots, special structures are developed to allow of the admission of air to the tissues underlying it. These are *lenticels*. In stems they are generally developed under places in the epidermis where stomata are present. They consist of a little rounded spherical mass of corky cells arranged loosely together. They become exposed to the air by rupture of the epidermis above them. In

FIG 726

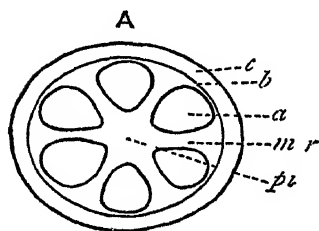


FIG 727

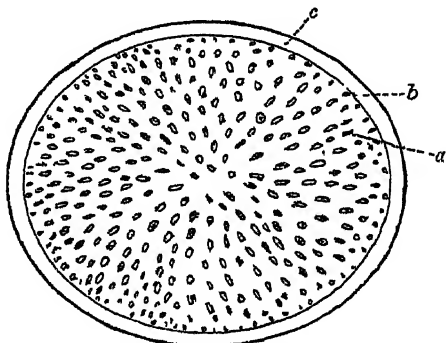


Fig 726 Diagram of monostelic stem of Dicotyledon c Cortex b Limit of stele a Fibro-vascular bundles p Pith m Medullary rays —

Fig 727 Diagram of section of monostelic stem of monocotyledonous plant a Vascular bundles c Cortex b Limit of stele

the autumn a formation of periderm takes place under them by which the communication with the exterior is cut off till the succeeding spring (fig. 724)

The intrastelar ground tissue is somewhat varied in its disposition. In a monostelic stem or root the whole stele is surrounded by a layer of usually parenchymatous tissue abutting on the endodermis and extending inwards for a variable distance. This is known as the *pericycle*. In roots (fig 726, *pe*) it is generally composed of a single layer of cells; in most stems, of several layers. The cells are usually parenchymatous, but bands, rings, or patches of sclerenchyma may be present. Frequently a number of such cells abut upon the vascular bundles. In roots

merismatic tissue is frequently developed in the pericycle. In consequence of this, secondary formations of both vascular tissue and periderm occur there. In the stem and petiole frequently glandular tissue is met with. The disposition of the rest of the stelar ground tissue depends upon the arrangement of the vascular bundles in the stele. We may distinguish several types. The

FIG 728

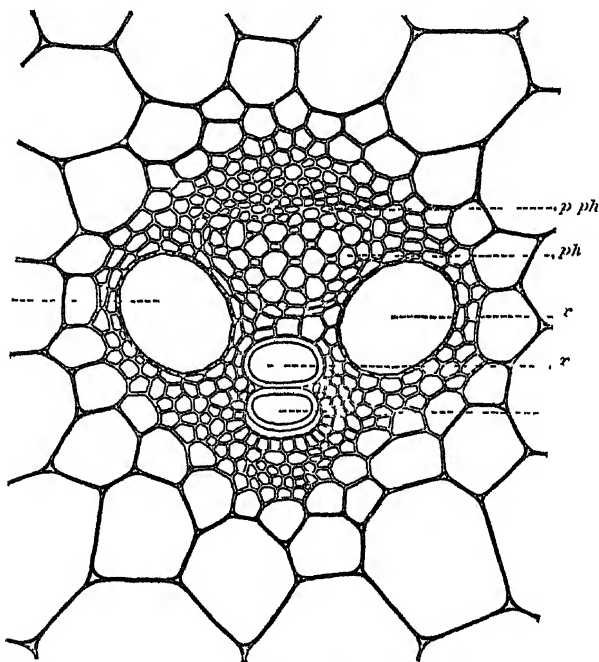


Fig 728 Collateral bundle from stem of a Monocotyledon. *ph* Phloem
x Xylem vessels *pph* Protophloem. The bundle is surrounded by a
 small celled sheath of sclerenchyma. After Kuy.

vascular bundles, few in number, may be arranged as a circle of wedge shaped bodies just within the pericycle, as in the stems of Dicotyledons. Then the conjunctive tissue consists of a central mass forming the *pith*, and a number of strands extending between the latter and the pericycle, constituting the so-called *medullary rays*. The vascular bundles may be numerous, and arranged in

a series of circles or irregularly in the stele, as in the stems of Monocotyledons. There is, then, no pith, but merely interfascicular ground tissue. The latter is generally most conspicuous towards the centre of the stele. The stele may consist of a solid vascular cylinder containing no conjunctive tissue at all, or only a little dipping in from the pericycle in the intervals between the bundles, as in many roots. In these places, as in the pericycle, the ground tissue is often found to contain sclerenchyma, either in isolated patches or forming sheaths round the vascular bundles, as in the stems of Monocotyledons (*fig. 728*), isolated vascular bundles sometimes occur in the pith. Where a large pith exists the cells of it tend after a time to break

Fig. 729

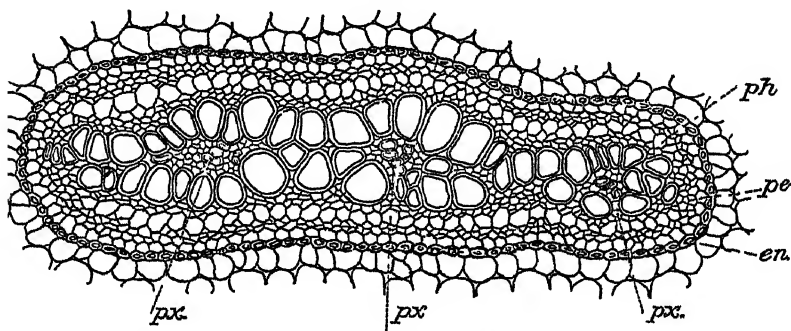


Fig. 729. Stele of stem of Fern, composed of three fused concentric bundles.
en Endodermis *pe* Pericycle *ph* Phloem *px* Groups of protoxylem

up and disappear, forming hollow stems as in the *Umbelliferae*. These hollow stems are extreme instances of lysigenous formations.

In polystelic stems each stele, in addition to its envelope of endodermis, is surrounded by a layer of pericycle. Such steles are usually solid vascular tissue, and do not show either pith or interfascicular ground tissue (*fig. 729*).

THE VASCULAR TISSUE SYSTEM.

THE STELE. - We have seen that the centre of the tissue of the growing point, which has been named the *plerome*, develops into a solid strand of complex character, forming the *stele*. Usually this remains single throughout the axis, and the plant is termed *monostelic*. The arrangements of its parts are

different in the stem and the root, but there is a single central cylinder running throughout the whole axis. From it separate portions, known as *meristeles*, pass outwards to the leaves. If a section of such a stele be taken a little way behind the growing point, there can be seen variously placed in it a number of collections or groups of small cells, very well defined and marked off conspicuously from the rest of the tissue. These are sections of strands of cells, called *procambium strands*, which a little later are transformed into the *vascular bundles*. Great differences appear in different steles in the composition and arrangement of the latter, as already described. Between them

FIG 730

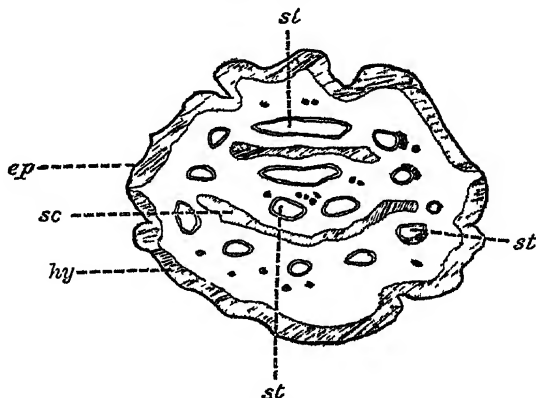


Fig 730 Polystele stem of Fern. *st* Steles *sc* Bands of sclerenchyma *hy* Hypodermal sclerenchyma *ep* Epidermis

we find ground tissue, and a layer of the same, the pericycle, surrounds the whole stele externally, lying in contact with the endodermis.

In many stems this monostele structure is not found. Several separate steles sometimes exist, each containing vascular bundles and surrounded by layers of pericycle and endodermis. Such stems are known as *polystele* (fig. 730). In some stems of this type the separate steles, or some of them, fuse together for variable distances along their course. The pericycle and endodermis then surround the mass formed by such fusion, and we have the arrangement known as *gamostely*. In other cases no distinct stele can be found, but a number of

strands run separately in the stem, each being composed of one vascular bundle. The latter in this case corresponds with the limits of the stele, and we have the condition called *astely*, or *schizostely*.

This differs from polystely in that each stele in the latter case is composed of two or more vascular bundles.

The Pericycle—As we have seen, this portion of the stele is to be regarded as ground tissue. It presents certain characteristic features in different portions of the axis. Generally, its cells are thin-walled and parenchymatous, and form a continuous layer over the stele. In the stem it is usually several layers of cells thick, and may contain a variety of tissues, including bands or strands of collenchyma, sclerenchyma, or glandular tissue. In the root it is usually only one cell thick, and the cells are all parenchymatous. An exception is found in nearly all Gymnosperms where it is many-layered. There is, however, a good deal of variety in its construction in many roots. It is not always continuous, being absent behind the woody bundles of many grasses and sedges and some other Monocotyledons, in which the protoxylem cells abut directly on the endodermis. In other cases its continuity is interrupted behind the bundles of the bast, particularly in several aquatic Monocotyledons.

Though generally of uniform thickness in roots, this is not without exception. It may be several cells thick opposite to the bast bundles, as in the aerial roots of some Orchids, or behind the wood bundles, as in some *Leguminosæ*. Where it is many-layered the cells may become sclerotised.

The pericycle is often the seat of secondary formations, due to its cells becoming merismatic. Phellogens especially arise there, leading to the development of layers of cork. This is particularly the case in roots, where the phellogen extends completely round the stele. Another meristem giving rise to vascular elements is also developed in the pericycle of the root, but this is discontinuous, occurring only outside the bundles of the wood. Its separate parts join a number of strands of a similar meristem arising more deeply in the stele, forming thus a sinuous ring of generating tissue, or *cambium*. In all plants above the Vascular Cryptogams the pericycle gives rise to the lateral rootlets.

In some aquatic roots the pericycle is not present, but the vascular tissue of the stele abuts directly on the endodermis. This is the case also in the roots of the *Equisetaceæ*, and in the stems of *Salvinia* and *Azolla*, where the endodermis is two-layered.

The Vascular Bundles.—Each fully differentiated vascular bundle consists usually of two parts, called the *xylem*, or *wood*, and the *phloem*, or *bast*. The xylem is made up of what has been described as tracheal tissue mixed with a certain amount of wood parenchyma and wood fibres. Its walls are always lignified, and usually the cells are empty of contents. The phloem is made up largely of sieve tissue with a little parenchyma. Associated usually with it are also a certain, sometimes

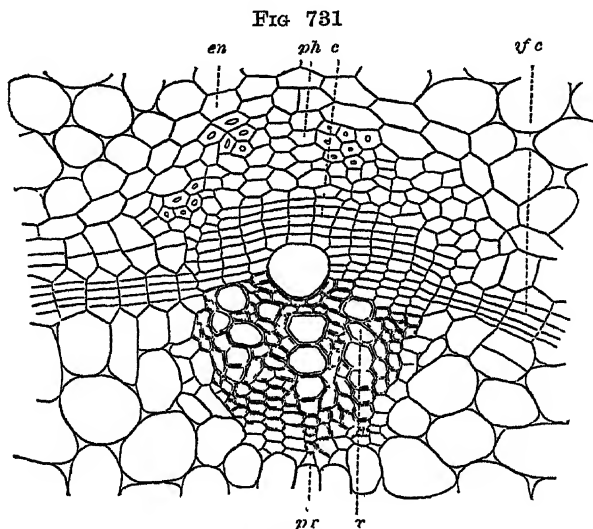


Fig. 731 Collateral bundle of *Ricinus*. en Endodermis ph Phloem
c Cambium pr Protoxylem x Xylem vc Intercellular cambium. After Sachs

a large, number of fibres. Bast or phloem cells are never lignified, and always contain protoplasm.

In addition to wood and bast certain bundles contain a thin layer of meristem, known as *cambium*.

The wood and bast, though usually combined into a single bundle, may be separate, when they are spoken of as wood or bast bundles respectively.

The number of bundles in a stele varies greatly. They are usually very numerous in the stems of Monocotyledons (fig. 727), few in those of Dicotyledons (fig. 726) and Cryptogams

(fig 729), or there may be only a single one, as in the separate steles of schizostelic stems

According to the mode of arrangement of the wood and bast, we have several types of vascular bundle. The two principal ones are the *collateral* and the *concentric*.

Collateral Bundles.—We distinguish again two kinds of these,

FIG 732

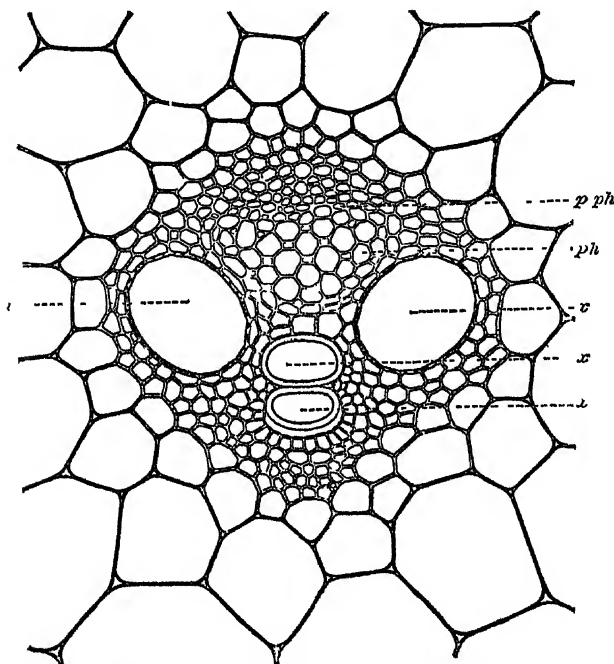


Fig 732. Collateral bundle from stem of a Monocotyledon. *p ph*, Phloem; *x*, Xylem vessels; *p ph*, Protophloem. The bundle is surrounded by a small celled sheath of sclerenchyma. After Kny

one characteristic chiefly of the stems of Gymnosperms and Dicotyledons, the other of those of Monocotyledons.

In the first variety the bundle is roughly wedge-shaped, and the bast is placed behind the wood (figs 731, and 743, B). The orientation of the bundle or its position in the stele is such that the narrow end of the wedge is directed towards the centre of the

stem, and its broad end towards the periphery. In such a bundle the wood and the bast are generally separated by a band or layer of cambium. In some cases the wood and bast in a bundle of this type are in contact with each other, and there is therefore no cambium. Such a bundle is said to be *closed*, in contradistinction to the form in which all three are present. A bundle possessing cambium, which is a meristem, is capable of continued increase in size, and is said to be *open*.

Some bundles of this type, occurring especially in *Cucurbi-*

FIG 733

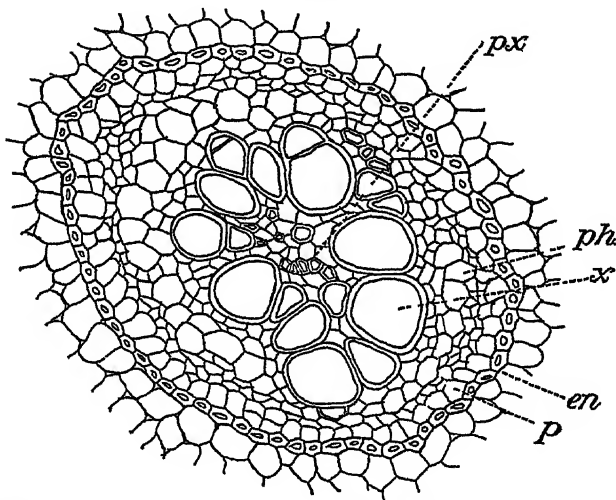


Fig 733 Concentric bundle from Fern stem. *en* Endodermis *p* Pericycle *ph* Phloem *px* Protoxylem *x* Xylem

taceæ and a few other natural orders, have a second bast bundle on the inner face of the wood. These are called *bicollateral*.

The second variety of collateral bundle is not so markedly wedge-shaped. The wood is never separated from the bast by a cambium layer, but tends to curve partially round it as in *fig 732*. The orientation of these bundles is similar to that of the first type.

Concentric Bundles —Of this form we have again two varieties. In most the wood is central, and is surrounded by a layer of

bast. This is seen in most Ferns (*fig. 733*). Sometimes a concentric bundle is formed by the fusion of a number of wood

FIG 734

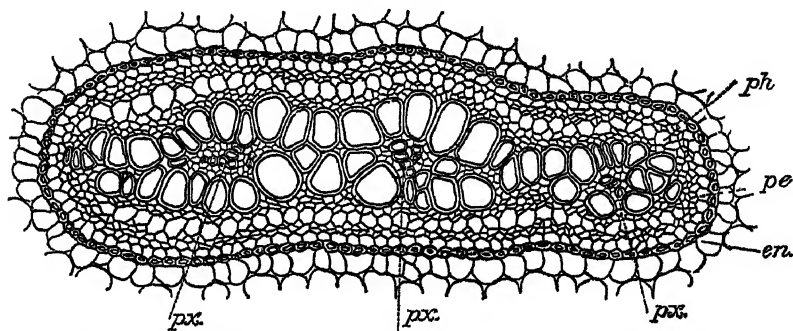


Fig 734. Stele of stem of Fern, composed of three fused concentric bundles
en Endodermis *pe* Pericycle *ph* Phloem *pi* (groups of protoxylem)

FIG 735.

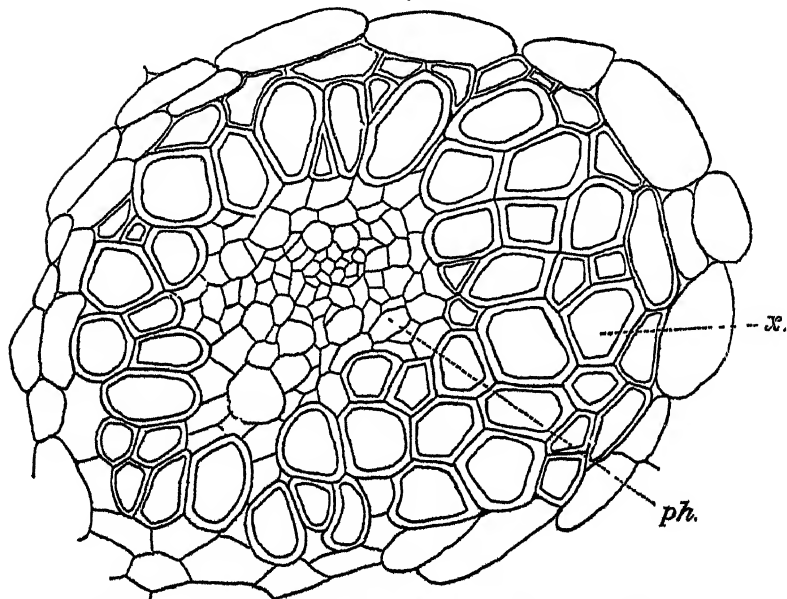


Fig. 735. Concentric bundle of *Dracena*, *x*, Xylem. *ph*, Phloem.

bundles to form a single mass, which is surrounded by a ring of bast, which is also the result of a fusion of separate bundles. Such a bundle is termed *gamodesmic*. it may be seen in many Ferns and Selaginellas (*fig 734*) It is better regarded as a *stèle*

FIG. 736

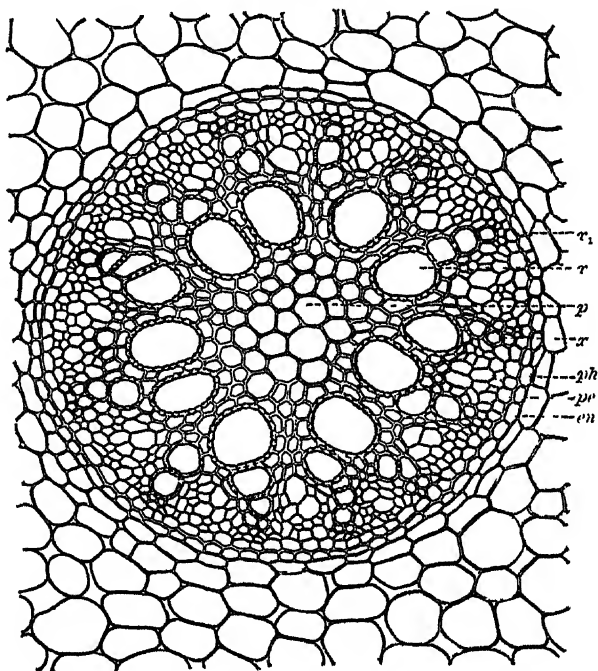


Fig 736 Section of stèle of root After Kny, *en* Endodermis *pe* Pericycle *x* Xylem bundles, the protoxylem, *r1*, abutting on the pericycle *ph* Phloem bundles alternating with the bundles of xylem *p* Pith, or conjunctive tissue of the stèle.

In the other variety we find the bast central, and the wood surrounding it. It occurs in a few Monocotyledons (*fig 735*). Concentric bundles never contain any cambium.

The stèle of the root has its wood and bast bundles separate from each other. They are said to be *radially* arranged as they lie side by side alternately in a circle round the axis (*fig. 736*). They are always separated by interfascicular ground tissue,

A variety, which leads to an apparently very complicated structure in the adult form, is found in the stems of *Lycopodium* and some allied plants, where the separate bundles ultimately become gamodesmotic.

The longitudinal course of the bundles in the stele varies very much in different stems, and will be best described when dealing with the structure of the latter.

In some cases they can be traced up to the plerome, beyond the insertion of the leaves, when the bundles are called *cauline*

FIG 737.

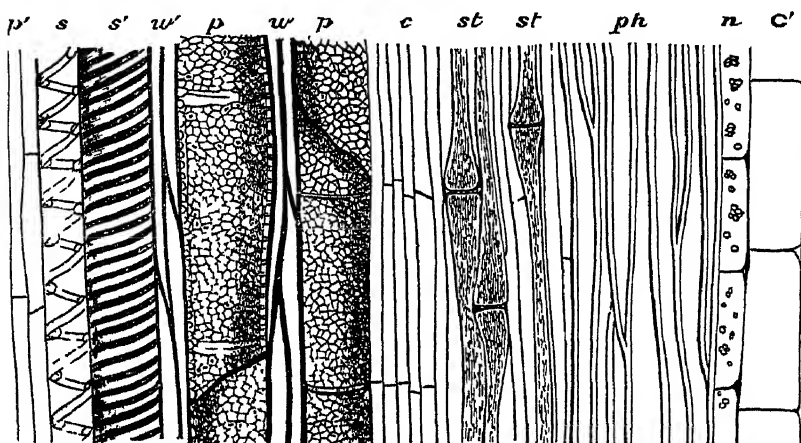


FIG 737 Radial vertical section through an indefinite fibro-vascular bundle from the stem of the sandwort *p'* Pith *s, s'* Spiral vessels (*Phlox* stem) *w, w'* Wood cells *p, p'* Pitted vessels *c* Cambium *st, st'* Sieve tubes *ph* Fibres of the pericycle *n* Bundle sheath *c'* Cortex After Prantl.

In other cases they bend outwards and end in the young leaves. Being common to stem and leaf, they are known as *common bundles*.

Differentiation of the Bundles.

The transformation of the procambium merismatic cells into the permanent tissue of the vascular bundle does not take place all at once, but begins at definite spots and extends in a regular manner from those points. In the first type of collateral bundle described above the development of wood starts by the differentiation of a spiral or annular vessel or row of tracheids situated,

with few exceptions, at the apex of the wedge, forming the *protoxylem* (fig 738, *px*) This is the only point at which spiral or annular vessels ever occur in such a bundle The differentiation then proceeds gradually backwards or centrifugally, forming the *primary wood*, which consists of vascular and parenchymatous elements with thickened lignified walls. The vessels and tracheids are variously pitted, as already described, and they lose their protoplasmic contents

The outer part or bast of this type of bundle begins to be

FIG 738

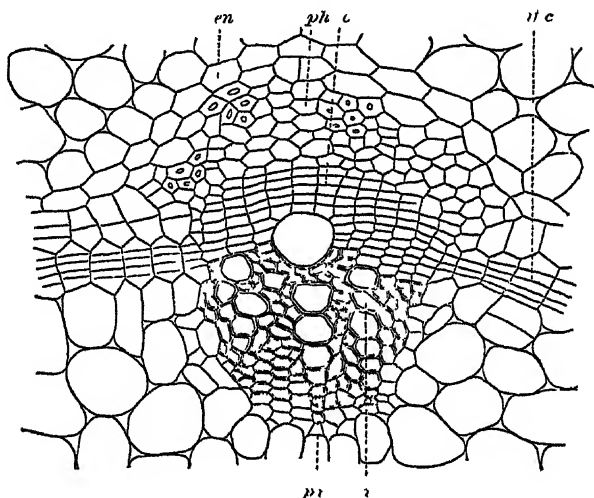


Fig 738. Collateral bundle of *Ricinus* en Endodermis ph Phloem
c Cambium px Protoxylem x Xylem ifc Interfascicular cambium

differentiated at a place at the exterior of the wedge-shaped mass, where a few sieve tubes and their companion cells may be observed These constitute the *protophloem*. Their shape becomes altered by pressure within the bast, and their walls appear swollen and their cavities almost indistinguishable. The differentiation of the rest of the bast proceeds then centripetally towards the wood In some cases the wood and bast come to meet as above described, in others a band of the procambium between them does not become permanent tissue, but retains its

merismatic powers This constitutes the *cambium* of the bundle (*fig* 738, *c*) Its cells are usually elongated parenchyma with thin walls and granular protoplasm. By this merismatic layer the bark on the one side and the wood on the other are increased, so that the conjoint bundle grows both forwards and backwards. This *fascicular* cambium is a primary meristem.

FIG 739

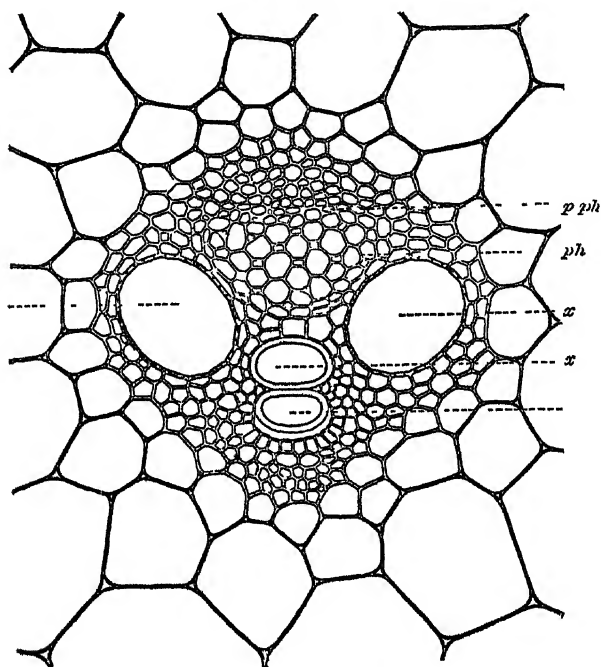


Fig. 739. Collateral bundle from stem of a Monocotyledon *ph* Phloem
x Xylem vessels *p ph*, Protophloem The bundle is surrounded by a
 small celled sheath of sclerenchyma After Kny.

The collateral bundle of the second type is similarly developed from the procambium strand. The protoxylem is an annular or spiral vessel of some size, occupying a position in the front of the bundle. Frequently it abuts on a lysigenous intercellular space, as seen in *fig*. 739. The protophloem, again,

lies at the back of the bast, there is no cambium left between the bast and wood

In the concentric bundle both protoxylem and protophloem can be identified. If the section of the bundle be circular, the protoxylem lies at the centre of the circle (*fig. 733*). In con-

FIG. 740.

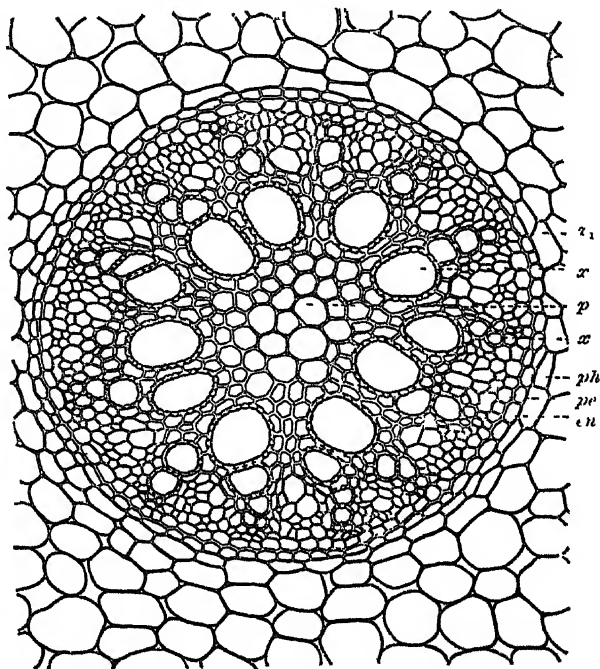


Fig. 740 Section of stele of root. After Kny. *en.* Endodermis. *p*. Pericycle. *x*. Xylem bundles, the protoxylem, *x₁*, abutting on the pericycle. *ph*. Phloem bundles alternating with the bundles of xylem. *p*. Pith, or conjunctive tissue of the stele.

centric gamodesmotic bundles there may be several groups of protoxylem, as in some Ferns and Selaginellas (*fig. 734*). The protophloem arises at one or more points on the outside of the circumferential zone of bast.

In radially arranged bundles each strand of procambium becomes completely converted into either wood or bast. The

position of both protoxylem and protophloem in these is always external (*fig* 736), so that the differentiation of the primary wood is centripetal instead of centrifugal, as in the collateral bundles.

This difference of direction of formation of the primary wood is one of the most important anatomical differences between the stem and the root of a phanerogamic plant.

CHAPTER IV.

THE STRUCTURE OF THE STEM

DICOTYLEDONOUS TYPE

As we have already indicated, the stem shows considerable variation in its structure, dependent chiefly upon the arrangement of the vascular tissue in the stele. In the great majority of forms

the stem is monostelic, and its tissues are arranged in one of two plans, leading to recognition of the two types especially characteristic of Dicotyledons and Monocotyledons respectively.

The dicotyledonous stem in its very young condition shows us in a longitudinal section of its apex a meristem of small cells, usually displaying epidermis, periblem, and plerome (*fig. 741*). A little way behind the apex the plerome can be seen in transverse sections to be marked off more or less distinctly by the innermost layer of the periblem.

The epidermis consists of a sheet of cells with cuticular-

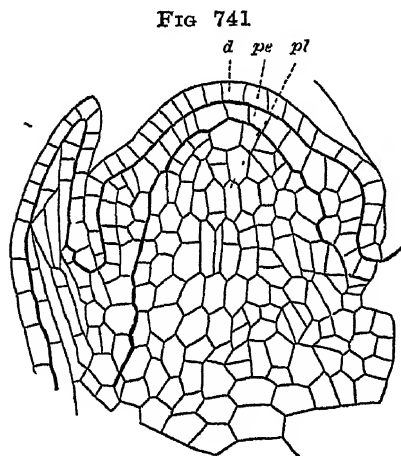


Fig. 741 Growing point of the stem of a Dicotyledon. After Donhot. *d* Epidermis, *pe* Periblem, *pl* Plerome. *l* Young leaf.

ised external walls, closely attached to each other, and having no intercellular spaces except the stomata, of which it bears a considerable number. The cells are usually empty save for the presence of water, except in aquatic plants, when they contain chloroplastids. These stems have no stomata. Frequently the

epidermis is provided with hairs of various shapes, and occasionally secreting cells are found among the others. The hairs, too, are often glandular.

The cortex consists typically of parenchyma, with numerous intercellular spaces. The outer layers frequently contain chloroplastids, starch grains, &c. Bands, sheaths, or isolated patches of sclerenchyma are often present. The innermost layer constitutes a sheath round the stele, named the endodermis, which is sometimes conspicuous, but generally very difficult to

FIG 742

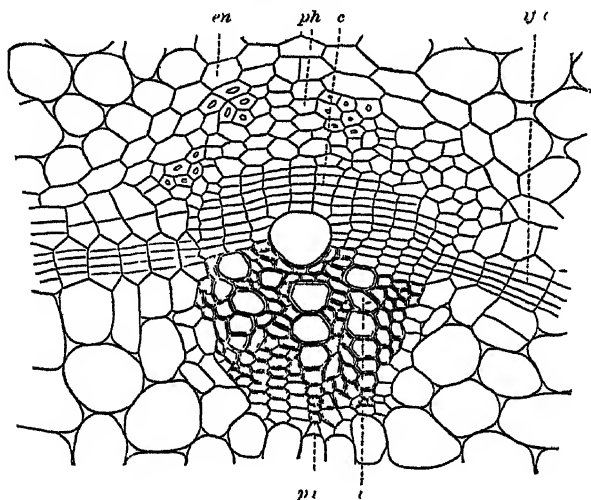


FIG 742 Collateral bundle of *Rumex*. en Endodermis ph Phloem
c Cambium pt Protoxylem t Xylem i Inter fascicular cambium
After Sachs

discriminate. It can often be determined by its cells being crowded with starch grains.

The cortex sometimes thickens in longitudinal lines, making the stem *ribbed*, or in isolated spots, producing *emergences* or *prickles*. Both ribs and prickles are covered by epidermis.

The epidermis and cortex persist throughout the life of herbaceous stems, but in those which increase much in thickness both are ultimately replaced by bark.

Not far from the apex of the stele the procambium bundles become differentiated, and in transverse section are seen to lie

FIG 743

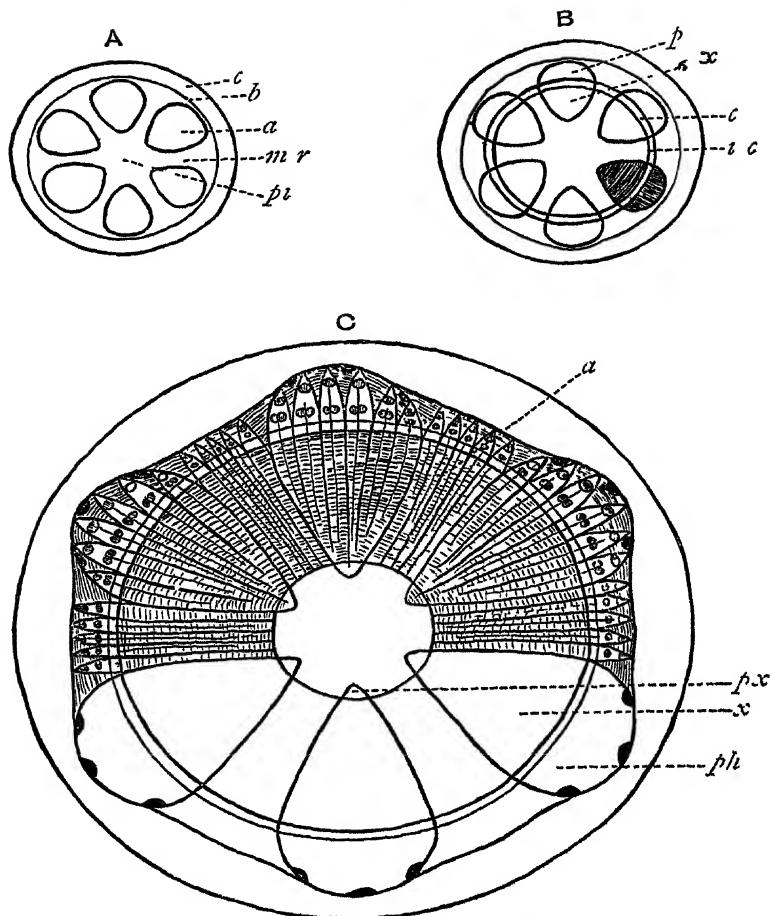


Fig 743 Diagram of stem of Dicotyledon at three ages. A Young condition showing commencement of differentiation of the stele and its fibrovascular bundles. *a* Procambium bundles arising in *b*, the stele. *c*, Cortex. *m*, Medullary rays. *pi*, Pith. B A little older stage. *p*, Phloem. *x*, Xylem. *c*, Fascicular cambium. *l*, Interfascicular cambium. One of the bundles has been shaded. *c*, Older stage after the commencement of secondary thickening. *pi*, Protoxylem. *x*, Secondary wood. *ph*, Secondary bast. *a*, New bundles formed by the interfascicular cambium in the primary medullary rays. The secondary medullary rays are indicated by the black radial lines, in the bundles. After Sachs.

in a ring surrounding the central pith. They are separated by conjunctive ground tissue which extends from the pith to the circumferential pericycle. These strands constitute the primary medullary rays. As they get older the differentiation of the vascular bundles from the procambium takes place, the protoxylem lying next the pith, and the protophloem abutting on the pericycle. The bundles of such a stem are collateral. When they are numerous, and consequently close together, the protoxylems form a more or less evident ring round the pith, and constitute the so-called *medullary sheath*.

The differentiation of the vascular elements does not usually extend throughout the bundle, but a narrow layer of meristem is left between the bast and wood, the *cambium* (fig 742, c).

By this meristem new wood and bast are formed by repeated divisions of a single layer of cells, the wood upon its interior, the bast upon its exterior surface. By the activity of the cambium, therefore, the individual bundles grow in a radial direction. The divisions of the cambium are chiefly in a tangential direction, but radial ones also take place.

Soon after the differentiation of the primary bundles is complete, changes take place in certain cells of the medullary rays, which become merismatic and form a band of cambium across the rays. This always occurs between the cambiums of the contiguous bundles, so giving rise to a ring of cambium round the stem at that point. The portion of the ring which is formed in the rays, and which differs from the rest by being a *secondary* meristem, is known as the *interfascicular* cambium (fig 742, *cf c*). The interfascicular cambium not only forms new parenchymatous tissue in the ray, maintaining its existence, but part of it forms also new wood and bast like the cambium of the bundle. We may get new vascular bundles intercalated in this way between the original ones, or we may have the latter continually increasing in breadth, their number remaining constant. When new bundles are thus formed they can be distinguished in the stem by not possessing any protoxylem, and by not being continued outwards into the leaves as are the primary ones.

New medullary rays or radial bands of parenchyma are formed in the substance of the bundles by the cambium as the mass of wood increases, which are known as secondary medullary rays. They differ from the original ones by not extending to the pith on the one hand or to the pericycle on the other. Their extent in a vertical direction also varies considerably in different cases.

The medullary rays, both primary and secondary, usually widen out in the bast in consequence of the stretching of the tissue brought about by the continuous increase of the central mass of wood. This leads to radial divisions of the cells of the medullary rays towards their outer ends.

The cells formed by the cambium undergo similar transformations to those of the procambium. The tissue of the two meristems is somewhat different, however, the procambium cells being elongated and narrow with square ends, while those of the cambium are prismatic. The behaviour of the two is different, the divisions of the procambial cells taking place in three planes, those of the cambium chiefly tangentially, but to a slight extent radially as well.

The activity of the cambium is greater towards the interior of the stem than outwards, so that much more wood is formed than bast.

The cells when first cut off from the cambium are thin-walled and hardly distinguishable from the merismatic cells. Gradually they are changed to the permanent form. Those which are to form xylem parenchyma divide transversely, becoming cubical instead of prismatic. Those destined to be tracheids or segments of vessels increase considerably in diameter, displacing and compressing the adjacent cells. They thicken regularly or irregularly, as before described. The fibres which originate from the cambium exhibit a curious mode of growth, their lower and upper ends, which are, like the cambial cells, somewhat pointed, growing past those of the cells which adjoin them, and which behave similarly. Thus the separate fibres extend themselves between their neighbours, and often attain considerable length. Their transverse diameter does not increase as in the case of the vessels. This mode of behaviour is known as *sliding growth*. It is seen, not only in the young stem, but often when growth in thickness is not accompanied by growth in length, when it causes curious displacement of the tissues.

In the Conifers the secondary wood formed by the cambium consists of fibrous tracheids whose radial walls are furnished with bordered pits (*fig* 638).

The cells formed in the bast include chiefly parenchyma and sieve tubes. The latter show a little peculiarity in their development, whether from cambium or procambium. The segment of the merismatic cell which is about to give rise to a sieve tube cuts off by longitudinal walls one or sometimes two segments,

which are much smaller than the remaining one. These constitute the companion cells (*fig 744, c*), each remains filled with protoplasm and contains a large nucleus. The remaining cell thickens its end walls, which become perforated, forming sieve plates, through which the contents of the adjacent cells communicate (*fig 744, s p*). The nucleus breaks up and disappears, so that the mature sieve tube has not a nucleus. The sieve plates have later a deposit of callus upon them.

In the Gymnosperms the sieve-tubes have no companion cells

The cambium cells, though usually elongated prisms in shape, are not always so. Those cells which continue the primary

FIG 744.

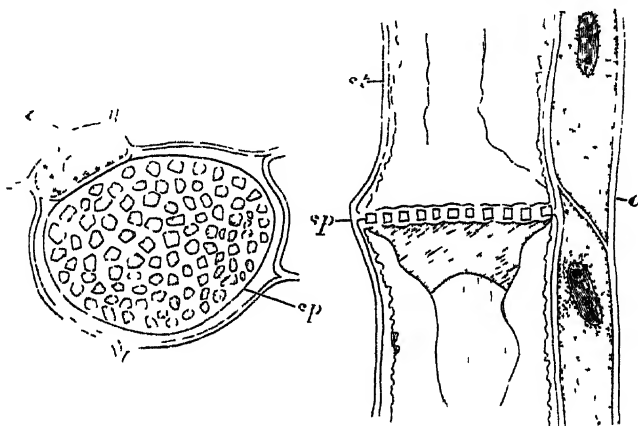


Fig 744 Sieve tube and companion cells. *c* Segment of the sieve tube
s p Sieve plate *c* Companion cells $\times 510$ After Strasburger

medullary rays, or which form secondary ones, divide transversely, becoming almost cubical (*fig 742, cf. c*). The segments which they contribute to the medullary rays have then always this shape.

By this mode of behaviour of the cambium ring, wood is continually formed centrifugally, and the stem increases in thickness. The activity of the cambium continues for the greater portion of each year, and consequently a new zone of wood is produced annually. The vessels which are formed in autumn have smaller diameters than those of the spring wood, so that the extent of each year's formation is usually very evident.

The successive zones of wood are known as *annual rings* (*fig. 745*)

The activity of the cambium on its external face is marked by a similar intermittence. Usually, however, the limits of each year's formation of bast are not distinct. The bast is further much interfered with by secondary formations of periderm.

FIG. 745

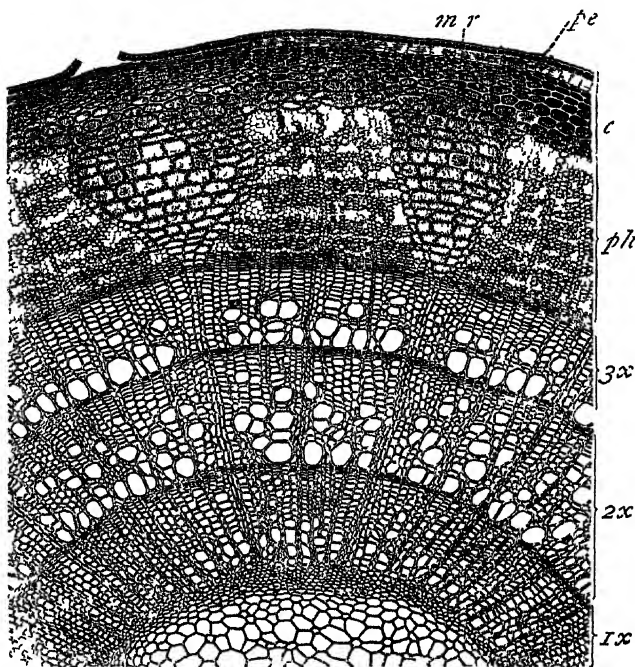


FIG. 745 Section of twig of Lime, three years old 1, 2, 3: The successive annual rings of wood *ph* Phloem *c* Cortex *m*: Primary medullary ray *pe* Layer of periderm. After Kny

In an old stem the internal zones of wood are frequently very different in appearance from the more external ones. As the wood gets older the cells lose their protoplasm and die, becoming hard and dry, and frequently much darker in colour. The outer zones, on the contrary, contain cells which are living, and which are charged with water. The secondary wood can thus

be divided into the *alburnum* or *sapwood*, and the *duramen* or *heart-wood*.

The great increase in thickness of the stem thus brought about sets up great and gradually increasing tension in the cortex, leading to early rupture of the external layers. To replace the latter such stems show a continual formation of layers of phellogen, each giving rise to a cork or periderm layer externally, and usually to phelloderm or secondary cortex internally. The periderm being impervious to moisture, all the tissues external

FIG 746

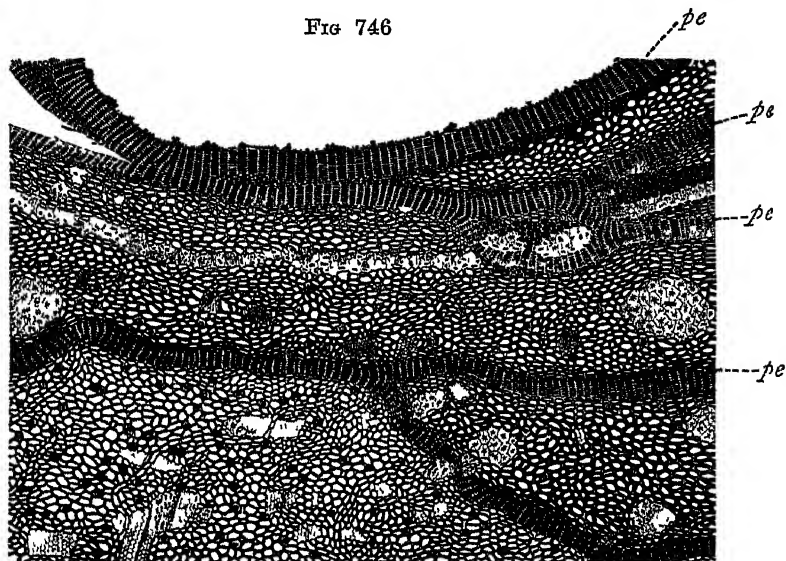


Fig 746. Section of bark of *Quercus vesiculifera*. After Kny pe Periderm layers, arising at different depths in the cortex

to it dry up and perish. Successive layers of phellogen arising continually deeper and deeper in the cortex cause the external dry tissue to be very complex in structure. The phellogen layers often extend as far internally as the secondary bast. The mass of external tissue thus formed is known as the *bark*. It includes all the layers of cork or periderm, with varying quantities of cortical tissue, pericycle, and bast. It is consequently extremely complex. The phellogens form often not only ordinary cork cells, but mixed with them cells thickened sclerenchymatously.

In some cases the bark is the product of a single phellogen which continues its activity for many years. A very thick external layer of cork is thus formed, as in the cork oak. In other cases a new phellogen is formed every few years, deeper in the tissue than the previous one.

These formations of phellogen may be cylindrical, cutting off regular zones or cylinders of tissue. Frequently, however, they dip into the other tissues somewhat irregularly, and often intersect each other, giving rise to the separation from the stem of irregular sheets of bark (*fig 746*). These sometimes, as in the Plane tree, are shed from the trunk in large patches. We distinguish the latter case from the former by the terms *scale bark* and *ringed bark* respectively. Ringed bark is generally ruptured longitudinally somewhat irregularly, and presents the appearance of grooves or furrows often of considerable depth.

Besides this formation of bark, serving as a normal protection to the internal tissues, another tissue is developed in cases where an injury occurs to woody plants. This is known as *callus*, and consists of ordinary parenchyma, which ultimately becomes covered with cork. It is only peculiar in its mode of origin, the cells which are adjacent to the injured ones becoming meristematic. There is not much difference between this formation and that of the covering of exposed surfaces by cork as already described (page 334). If in a stem or root the wound reaches to the cambium, the callus originates at its sides as before, but cork and new cambium are formed in it, the latter joining the cambium which was injured, and growing over and closing the wound. If any object becomes impacted in the wood by the injury, the new formation grows over it and completely encloses it.

Turning from transverse sections to study the structure as revealed by longitudinal ones, this type of stem shows at the summit a small celled meristem as already described, forming a conical apex on which small lateral protrusions arise in acropetal succession. The division into nodes and internodes is visible at a very early period, the small protrusions or cushions arising at the former. Each protrusion is the rudiment of a leaf. It consists of a small outgrowth of the periblem covered by the young epidermis. The central portion of the stem or pterome does not contribute to its formation.

A little further from the apex the differentiation of the procambium bundles in the stele can be seen. By the time this is evident the leaves have elongated to a greater extent, and the differentiation of their internal tissue is progressing. Each pro-

camium bundle of the stele is found to be continuous with one of those of the leaf, so that the bundle appears to start in the leaf and to pass downwards into the stem. It is said on this account to be a *common* bundle, that is, common to leaf and stem. The first appearance indeed of protoxylem is usually seen near the point of junction of the two members. These primary common bundles are known as *leaf trace* bundles on account of their origin as described.

Tracing these leaf trace bundles down the stem they are

FIG. 747

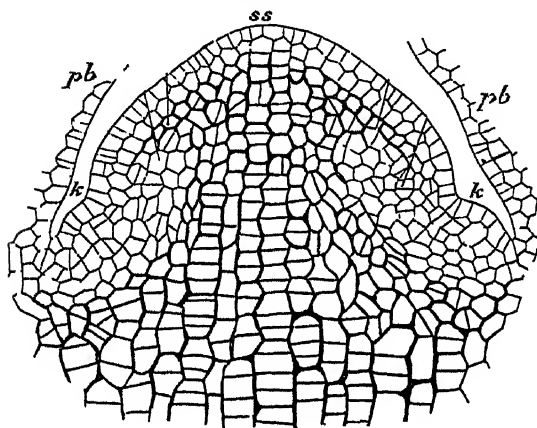
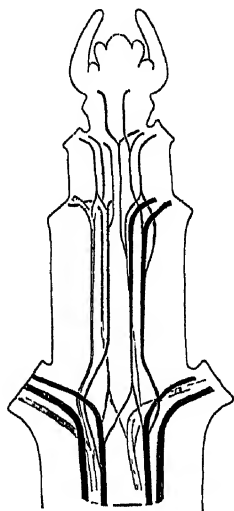


Fig. 747. *Phaseolus multiflorus*. Longitudinal section through the apical region of the stem of an embryo. ss Apex pb, pb Parts of the two first leaves, k, k Commencement of their axillary buds. After Sachs —
Fig. 748. Diagram of course of bundles in stem of Dicotyledon. After Naegeli.

FIG. 748



found to pass independently down the internodes, joining at the nodes other bundles entering there from the leaf vertically below them, or bifurcating and joining those entering the stem from the nearest orthostichies. If a leaf at a node sends many bundles into the stem, their courses become complicated; they sometimes join the primary bundles of the stellar ring, or they may form also independent circles in the cortex or the pith.

The secondary bundles formed by the cambium have no connection with the leaves; they are *cauline* bundles only.

The branches of the stem arise, as we have seen, in the axils

of the leaves by development there of lateral growing points which arise as small protuberances on the side of the main one (*fig.* 747). They arise as do the leaves only from the perilem and the epidermal layer. As they develop, their structure is found to be similar to that of their parent; they show the same merismatic

FIG 749

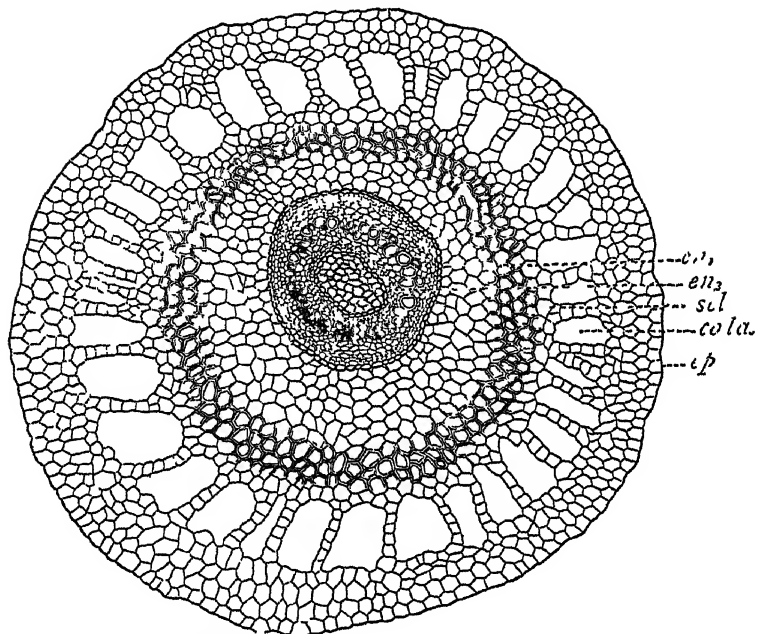


Fig 749 Aquatic stem of *Marsilea* *ep* Epidermis *c* Cortex *lac* Cortical lacunae *scl* Sclerenchyma in the cortex *en*, Outer, *en*, inner fused endodermis of the steles. The steles are fused together laterally, forming a vascular ring in the centre of the stem surrounding a small portion of the ground tissue

layers, each of which becomes continuous with the corresponding layer of the latter.

In aquatic stems, both of this and of the monocotyledonous type and of certain Cryptogams, there is comparatively little development of wood. Instead, the cortex is unusually large, and frequently shows large lacunae or air-passages, which occupy a large part of its substance, very few rows or chains of cells sepa-

rating them (*fig. 749*). In some cases the cells abutting on these air-passages are developed into hairs of curious form. These lacunæ are interrupted at the nodes, where the parenchyma is continuous.

MONOCOTYLEDONOUS TYPE.

The structure of the growing point of stems of this type differs slightly from that of the former one. The apex is covered by a dermatogen, within which are the periblem and plerome, but the distinction between the two latter is not well marked, a single initial layer being probably common to both (*fig. 750*).

A transverse section taken a little lower down shows the

FIG 750.

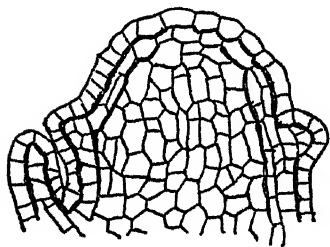


FIG 751

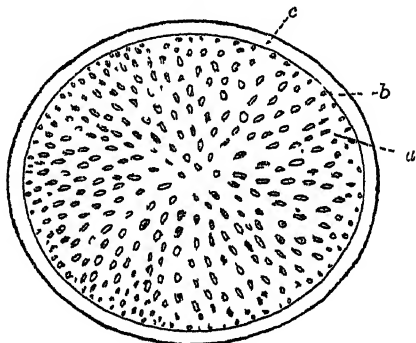


Fig 750 (growing point of stem of monocotyledonous plant After Douliot
--- *Fig 751* Diagram of monocotyledonous stem, showing bundles
scattered more or less irregularly in the stele

central stele differentiated as in the former case. The arrangement in the stele is, however, very different. Instead of a ring of procambium bundles arranged round a central pith, many bundles are found, arranged more or less in a number of rings, and all pointing to the centre of the stele. They arise first towards the centre of the cylinder and proceed thence outwards. Further development leads to increasing irregularity in the ring-like arrangement, so that in an older stem the bundles seem to be scattered irregularly in the cylinder (*fig. 751*).

The bundles are of the collateral type, but as differentiation of the tissues proceeds, all the procambium is transformed into permanent tissue, so that the bundles are *closed*, containing no

cambrum. The protoxylem is at the apex of the bundle, and consists of one or two spiral or annular vessels (*fig 752, p x*). The large ducts or vessels on the wings of the bundle are next developed and then the remainder of the wood. The proto-phloem is at the back of the bast (*fig. 752, p ph*). The whole

FIG 752

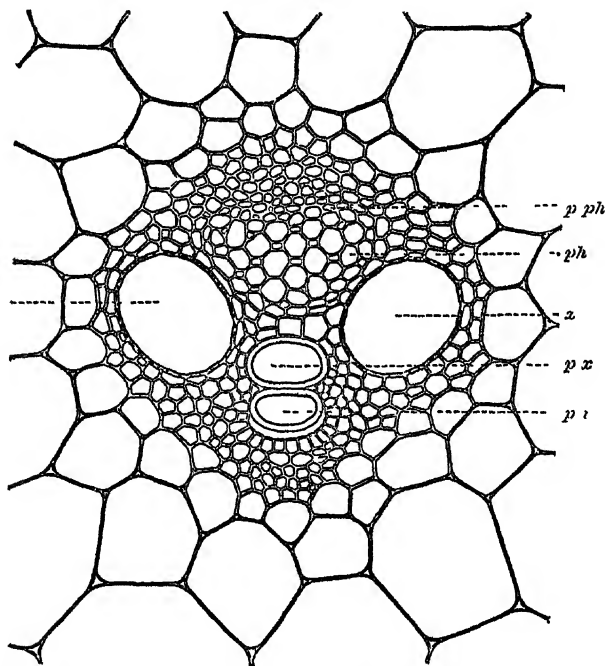


Fig 752 Collateral bundle from stem of a Monocotyledon. *ph* Phloem
x Xylem vessels. *p ph* Protophloem. The bundle is surrounded by a
 small-celled sheath of sclerenchyma. After Kny.

bundle is surrounded by a sheath consisting of a few layers of sclerenchyma belonging to the conjunctive tissue of the stele.

Viewed in longitudinal section the bundles are seen, as in the other type, to be common bundles, being continuous with those which belong to the leaves. Usually several bundles enter from each leaf. Each passes inwards for some distance, then turns outwards and passes obliquely down the stem,

and ultimately joins a bundle originating from a lower leaf (*fig* 753)

In the grasses, in consequence of the great and rapid elongation of the internodes, the bundles appear to run perpendicularly down the stem. They do not penetrate far towards the centre of the stele, which becomes hollow. At the nodes the

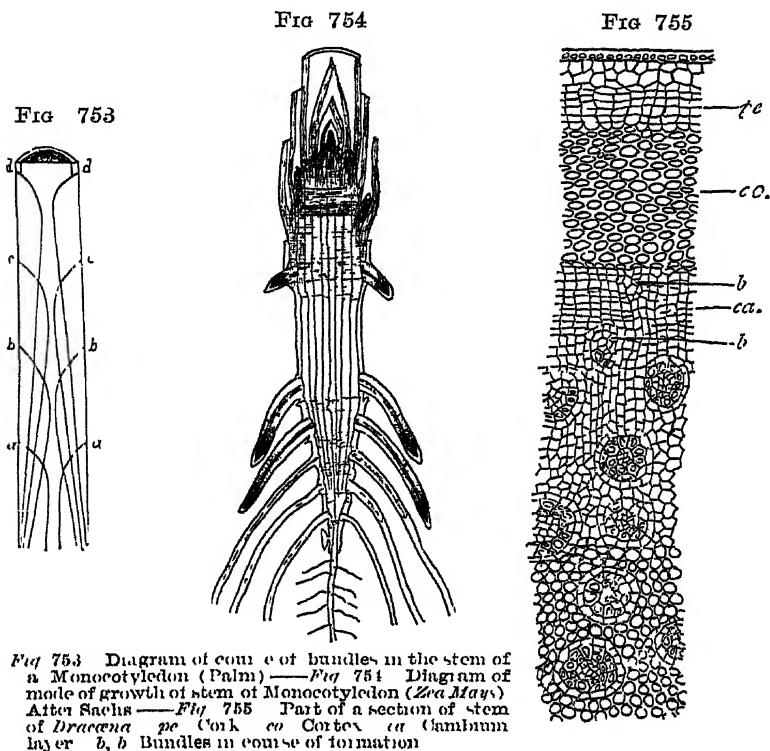


Fig 753. Diagram of course of bundles in the stem of a Monocotyledon (Palm) — *Fig* 754. Diagram of mode of growth of stem of Monocotyledon (*Zea Mays*) After Sachs — *Fig* 755. Part of a section of stem of *Dracaena* sp. *co* Cortex *ca* Cambium layer *b, b* Bundles in course of formation

bundles anastomose freely with each other, forming a number of diaphragms across the cavity

The pericycle or external portion of the stele is generally lignified, and forms a hard sheath to the cylinder. The cells are chiefly fibrous, serving, with the sclerenchymatous sheaths to the separate bundles, to give the necessary rigidity to the stem. The cortex of the stem varies a good deal in thickness, being

generally thin in sub-aerial and relatively thick in subterranean ones

No cambium being present in this type of stem, there is no regular increase of thickness as in the former type. The stem of the young plant is at first very slight, but as growth proceeds the growing point becomes continually larger and more vigorous, so that each node and internode become larger than the preceding ones. The young stem is thus in the form of an inverted cone (*fig* 754). After a time this continuous enlargement ceases, and the upper portion of the stem is cylindrical.

This kind of stem is not associated, as is the former type, with a tap root. The primary root soon disappears, and the further root system consists of a number of adventitious roots developed from the lower part of the stem.

In some Monocotyledons, *e.g.*, *Dracæna*, *Yucca*, a regular growth in thickness of the stem occurs. It is brought about by the development of a secondary meristem or cambium layer which arises towards the exterior of the cylinder (*fig* 755). This forms a series of bundles gradually proceeding outwards. These bundles are sometimes concentric, having their bast internal.

In such stems there is a formation of periderm in the cortex, which is provided with lenticels.

OTHER TYPES OF STEM

Besides the two types of monostelic stems described, another is found in some of the Vascular Cryptogams. The general features of the cortex vary a good deal, stereome tissue being distributed in many ways. The special feature of the stele is that the development of the xylem is centripetal. The xylem and phloem bundles are placed side by side, and thus alternate with each other. The structure is seen best in the stem of *Lycopodium* (*fig* 756). The stele is clothed by a pericycle and surrounded by an endodermis. At various distances round the ring of pericycle, touching its internal face, a number of protoxylem groups are differentiated, between which are an equal number of protophloems. The primary wood develops centripetally from these protoxylem groups, and the separate masses so formed unite irregularly in the centre of the stele, forming a number of bands which are separated by similar bands of phloem. This type of structure is found also in *Ptilotum* and a few other cases.

A similar centripetal formation of the primary wood is found in the separate steles of several of the polystelic

Selaginellas and Ferns, and also in the hypocotyledonary portion of the axis in some of the Phanerogams, where the transition from the structure of the stele of the stem to that of the root can be observed.

Schizostelec Stems—In this type of stem the central stele can be observed at its lower part, but as the axis is examined higher up, the cylinder is found to break up into as many strands

FIG 756

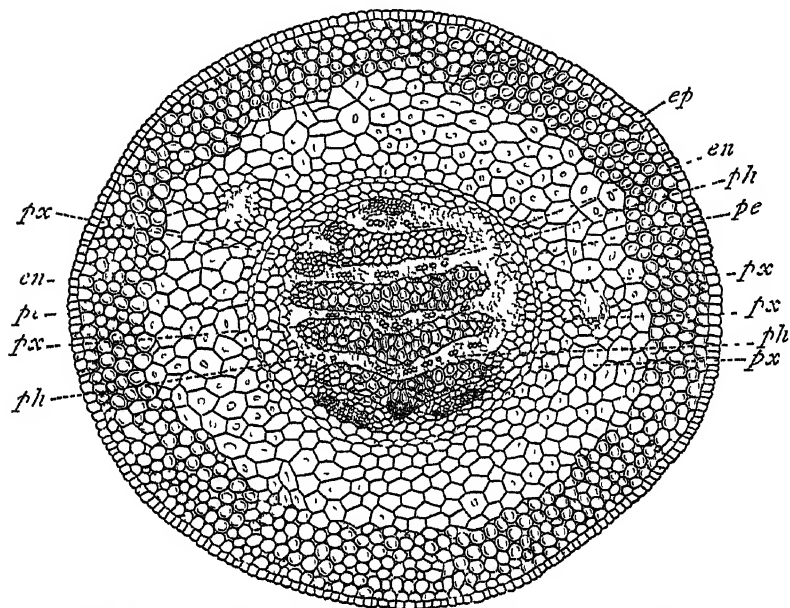


Fig 756 Section of stem of *Lycopodium* ep Epidermis en Endodermis
pc Pericycle px Groups of protoxylem ph Phloem. After Sachs

as there are vascular bundles, and these separate from each other, each becoming clothed with its own pericycle and endodermis, continuous below with those of the original monostelec. The separate bundles may be scattered through the substance of the stem, or may be arranged in a circle. At intervals they anastomose with each other, forming a network of bundles.

This type of arrangement is rare among flowering plants, but it is not uncommon among the Cryptogams, being very frequently

found among the *Equisetaceæ*. Some species of the latter show the separate bundles arranged in a ring, each with its pericycle and endodermis surrounding it (fig 757, A); other species show the separate bundles all fused together laterally, except that part of their pericycle remains between each pair. The endodermis

FIG 757.

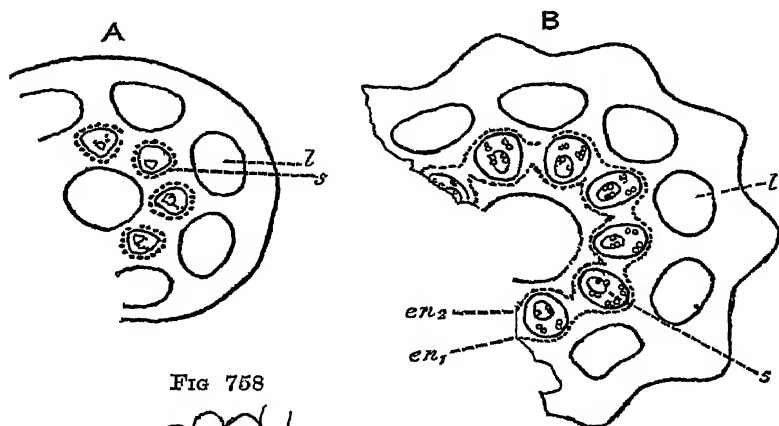


FIG 758

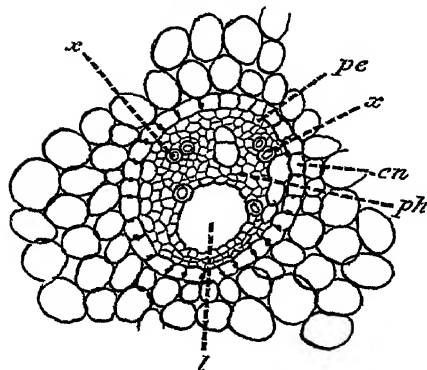


Fig 757 Diagram of stem in two species of *Equisetum*. A *E. limosum*. The separate bundles or schizosteles, each with its endodermis. B *E. hiemale*. The schizosteles, have their endodermis fused laterally. In both figures *l* = central lacuna. After Pfitzer. — Fig 758 Section of vascular bundle of *Equisetum limosum*. *en* Endodermis. *pc* Pericycle. *x* Xylem. *ph* Phloem. *l* Lacuna. After Dippel.

and part of the pericycle disappear from between them, but remain fused in front and behind them, giving the appearance of an internal and external sheath (fig. 757, B). The separate bundles of the *Equisetums* are peculiar in having a large lacunar space in the region of the xylem, causing the latter to be represented by only a few vascular elements (fig. 758).

The bundles in schizostelic stems are always collateral.

Polystelic Stems —In these as in the last described type the first-formed stem is monostelic, but as it grows the stele splits

FIG 759

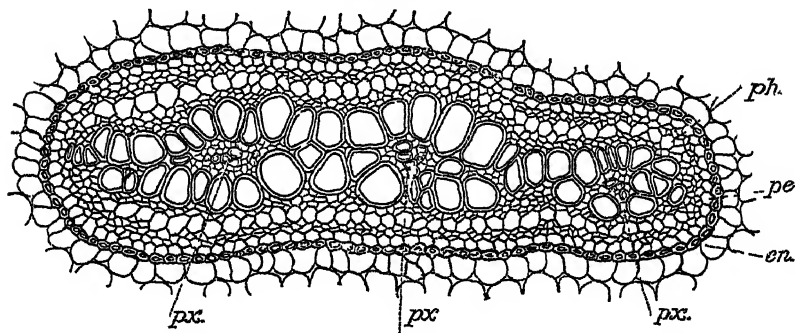


Fig 759 Stele of stem of Fern, composed of three fused concentric bundles.
en Endodermis *p* Pericycle *ph* Phloem *pi* Groups of protoxylem

into two, three, or more strands, each consisting of more than one vascular bundle. The separate xylems of these steles are

FIG 760

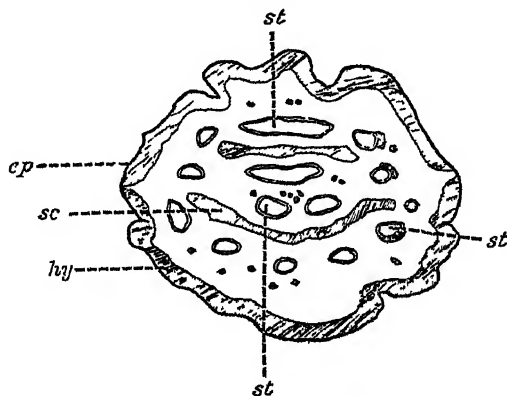


Fig 760 Polystelic stem of Fern *st* Steles *sc* Bundles of sclerenchyma
en Endodermis *ep* Epidermis

fused together, so that there is no pith. Each stele is surrounded by a pericycle and an endodermis. The separate steles may be

irregularly disposed through the thickness of the stem, or they may be arranged in a more or less ring-like manner. In the latter case the central tissue must not be confused with the pith of a monostelic stem. The separate steles frequently anastomose with each other, forming an irregular network which can readily be seen after destruction of the soft tissues by maceration

FIG 761

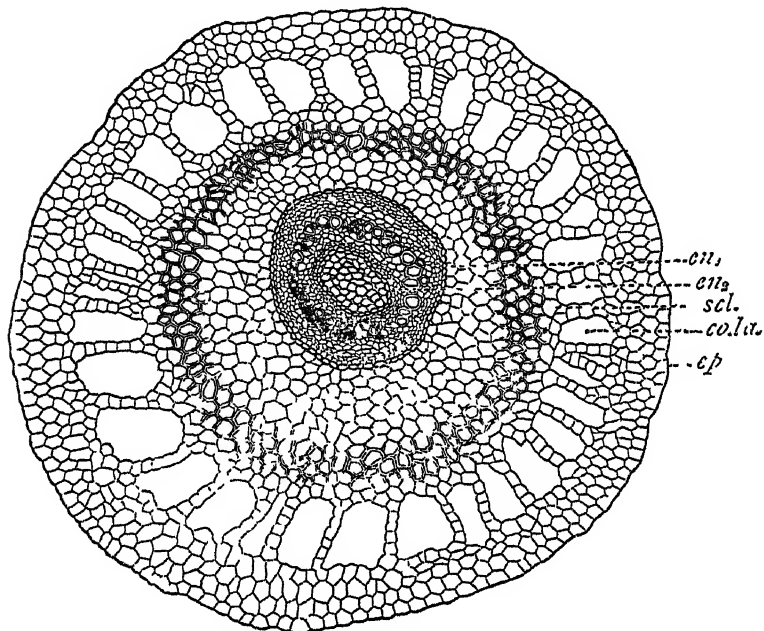


Fig 761 Gamostele stem of *Marsilea* cp Epidermis col Cortical lacunae scl Sclerenchyma in the cortex en₁ Outer, en₂ inner fused endodermis of the steles. The steles are fused together laterally, forming a vascular ring in the centre of the stem surrounding a small portion of the ground tissue

Two varieties of the arrangement occur. In the first, which is known as *dialystely*, the steles remain for the most part independent, so that a transverse section shows them separate or fused two or three together (fig. 760). In the second the steles are arranged in a ring, and are close together. Many of them fuse together laterally, giving the appearance of an almost complete

ring of vascular tissue, simulating the appearance often of the ring of collateral bundles of the dicotyledonous type of monostelic stem. As they fuse, the endodermis and pericycle on their lateral faces disappear, and the parts of those layers behind and in front of them become continuous. The ring of tissue can be distinguished from the ring of the dicotyledonous stem by the presence of internal endodermis, pericycle, and phloem layers (*fig. 761*).

This mode of arrangement, known as *gamostely*, is met with in certain Ferns, especially *Marsilea*, and in some species of *Auricula* among Phanerogams.

The conjunctive tissue in both polystelic and schizostelic stems is all to be regarded as extra-stelar in origin. Their growing points are generally furnished with an apical cell (*fig. 762, a*), though sometimes they have a small-celled meristem

FIG 762

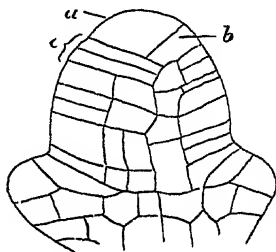


Fig. 762 Growing point of shoot of *Equisetum arvense* $\times 250$ *a* Apical cell *b c* Successive segments cut off from it

CHAPTER V

THE STRUCTURE OF THE ROOT.

Like that of the stem, the apex of the root in Phanerogams consists of a mass of merismatic tissue in which the dermatogen, periblem, and pleiome can be distinguished. The separate histo-

FIG 763

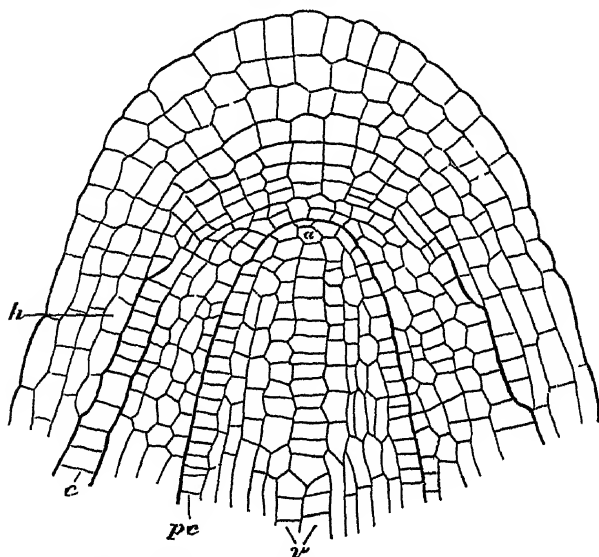


FIG 763 *Polypodium (a) japonicum*. Root apex, median longitudinal section
 pe Pericycle, outside boundary of the pleiome a Rudiment of a vessel
 c Dermatogen Between pe and c, periblem h Root cap After De laury

genic layers are frequently more distinct than in the former case. The dermatogen does not here consist of a single layer, but divides into a number of layers, the outermost of which form a

cellular mass known as the root-cap (*fig* 763, *h*). The innermost layer is in most Dicotyledons continued backwards over the surface, and forms the so-called *puberous layer*. This is not, however, invariably the case. In most Monocotyledons the dermatogen does not persist far from the apex, and the external layer above the point of its disappearance is the outer layer of the peribloom. In either case, from the external layer the special absorbent structures of the root, the *root-hairs*, are developed (*fig* 711).

The peribloom of the root gives rise to a cortex which persists for a longer or shorter time. Its cells are generally parenchymatous with thin walls, and there are many intercellular spaces among them. The hypodermal layer of this is known as the exodermis, and its cells are frequently thickened as already described (*fig* 718). The endodermis is well marked, and its cells

FIG 764

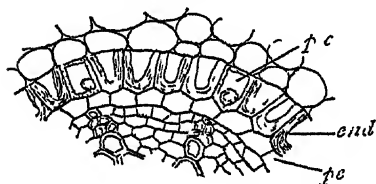


FIG 765.

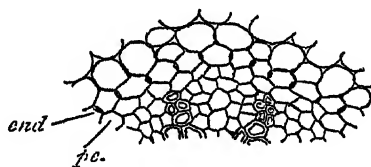


Fig 764 Endodermis and pericycle of root of *Iris florentina* end Endodermis pc Passage cell pc Pericycle — *Fig* 765 Endodermis of root with cogged thickening

are usually thickened considerably. When, as in *Iris florentina*, the thickening is regular round the internal and radial walls, there are certain cells left unthickened (*fig* 764). Very frequently the thickening is deposited in the form of the band described at page 332, the separate thick portions somewhat resembling the projections of a cogged wheel (*fig* 765). The thickenings are cuticularised in both cases. In *Equisetum* the endodermis is two layers of cells thick.

The stele or central cylinder differs in many important particulars from that of the stem. The pericycle is usually only one layer of cells in thickness, though in the Gymnosperms and some few Dicotyledons it is many-layered. It is absent from the roots of *Equisetum*. Its cells are parenchymatous, it does not show so much differentiation as it does in the stem, rarely containing, when more than one layer of cells thick, any additional

form of tissue except secretory ducts. When thickening of the roots takes place it gives rise to certain merismatic layers which take an important share in the process. The vascular bundles vary in number, but the bast and the wood are never conjoined; they lie side by side with each other, on separate radii of the axis, and are separated by a little conjunctive tissue. They are first

FIG. 766

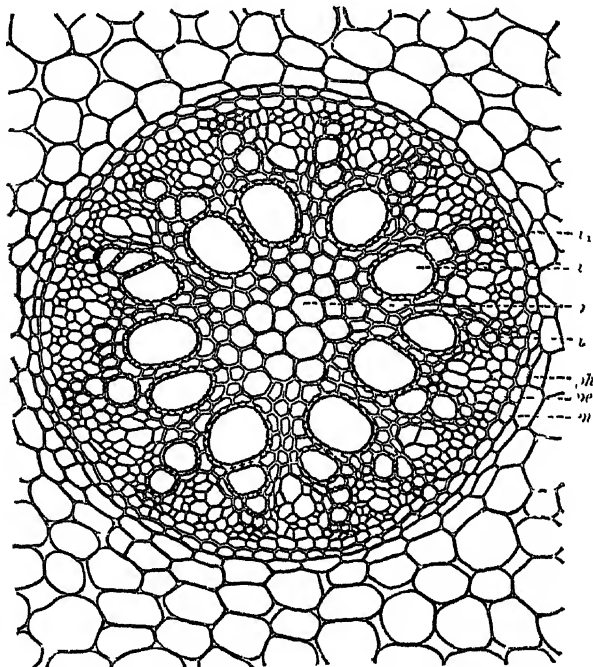


Fig 766 Section of stele of root After Kny *en* Endodermis *pe* Pericycle *x* Xylem bundles, the protoxylem, *t1*, abutting on the pericycle *ph* Phloem bundles alternating with the bundles of xylem *p* Pith, or conjunctive tissue of the stele

noticeable as procambium strands, and gradually take on the form of their permanent tissue. In the differentiation of the latter, the protoxylem as well as the protophloem is situated on the outer face of the bundle, so that the development is always centripetal. This constitutes a further important distinction between the root and the stem.

The stele of the root does not usually contain any pith, the xylem bundles becoming united towards the centre. When pith is present the walls of its cells are often lignified, so that the centre of the stele is a hard woody cylinder.

The number of the xylem and phloem bundles varies, being usually much greater in Monocotyledons than in Dicotyledons. Generally there are as many of one as of the other. When only two of each are present the mass of wood formed by the union of the xylems extends across the cylinder forming a plate of tissue, and the two bundles of the phloem lie one on each side of it. Such a root is called *diarch*. When more xylem bundles unite to form the plate, corresponding terms are used to describe it; thus we have *triarch*, *tetrarch*, *polyarch* roots. These terms were originally used when it was considered that the central mass of wood was a single bundle, with several points of origination of the differentiation.

The root of Dicotyledons and Gymnosperms does not contain any meristem homologous with that in the bundles of the stem. When it increases in thickness, it does so by the development of interfascicular cambium, which arises as a secondary meristem in the conjunctive tissue on the inner face of the phloem bundles, and which forms wood on its inner face and bast on its outer as in the stem. These interrupted strands of cambium are a little later connected together by a similar meristem arising in the pericycle. The cells of the latter divide so as to form two or more layers in thickness behind the primary xylem bundles, and the inner layer becomes merismatic. In this way a sinuous layer of cambium is formed, which becomes circular as growth proceeds. The further development is similar to that of the stem.

The behaviour of the cambium ring is not uniform in different plants. In some it forms wood and bast opposite only to the original phloem bundles, giving rise to parenchyma behind the primary xylems (*fig* 767). Thus a broad medullary ray alternates with strands of secondary vascular tissue, as in *Urtica*, *Cucurbita*, and many other plants. This is very prominent generally in fleshy roots. Frequently in the latter, in the width of this ray, separate intermediate strands of vascular tissue occur. In other cases the cambium forms bast and wood opposite to both primary phloem and primary xylem.

In Monocotyledons and Vascular Cryptogams no cambium layer is developed in the roots, which consequently increase in thickness only very slightly.

Coincidentally with the development of the secondary vascular tissue in the stele, a phellogen layer arises, usually in the pericycle, though sometimes in the cortex, which forms periderm externally and phelloderm on its inner face, as in the stem. The tissues external to the periderm dry up and are thrown off, so that the exterior of the root is covered by a layer of cork, usually of stelar

FIG 767

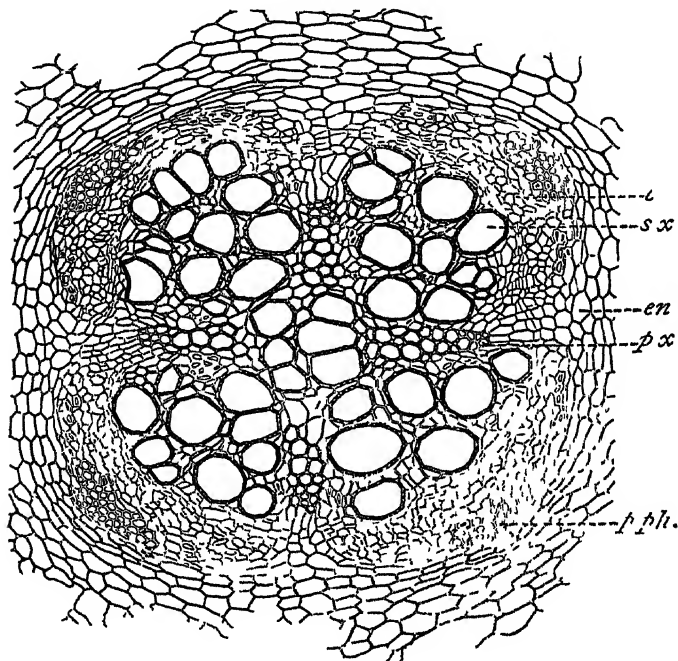


Fig 767 Section of root showing secondary thickening. *en* Endodermis. *px* Primary xylem bundles. *pxh* Primary phloem bundle. *sx* Masses of secondary xylem formed opposite to the latter. *c* Cambium (opposite to the primary xylem the cambium has only formed parenchyma, constituting large secondary medullary rays. After Kny

origin. This phellogen continues active for some time, and then becomes either cork or permanent parenchyma. A new phellogen subsequently arises in the new-formed phelloderm, which behaves as did the first one. Subsequent ones are successively formed still more internally, till the last-formed one is only separated from the cambium ring by the youngest bast. In this

way a bark is formed in the root very similar in composition to the same structure in the stem. Like that of the stem it often becomes irregularly cracked and fissured, sometimes it is shed annually after the manner of scale bark.

The branches of the root arise endogenously. In all flowering plants they are developed from the pericycle, and bore their way outwards through the cortex.

The number of rows of branches produced from a root corresponds to the number of primary xylem bundles, one being usually formed outside each. At a very early stage in the development of the primary root a group of cells can be distinguished in the pericycle which elongate in the direction of the circumference (fig 768). They divide then by tangential walls, forming a layer two cells deep. The inner

one of these is the layer which gives rise to the pericycle of the new root. The outer one divides again into two, which are the initial layer of the pericycle and dermatogen respectively. The little mass continues to grow, becoming conical, and gradually working its way to the exterior, absorbing

FIG. 768

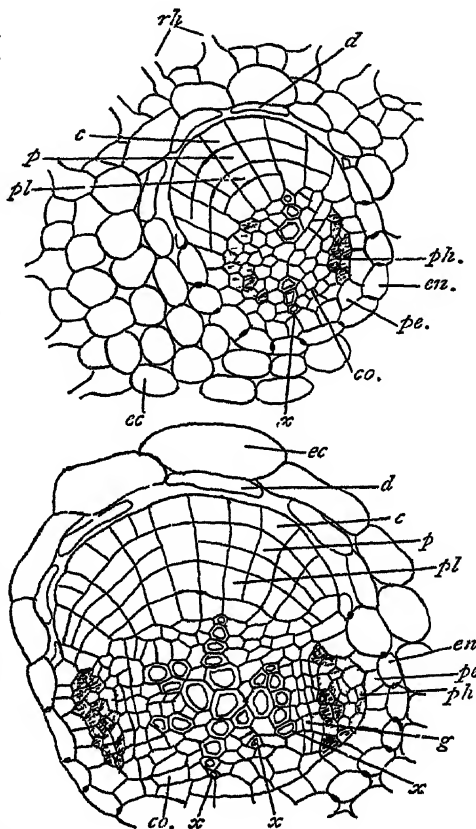


Fig. 768. Transverse section of root of *Hesperis*, to show a rootlet at two stages of development. *ph* Root hair; *ec* Cortex; *d* Cells in process of absorption; *en* Endodermis; *pe* Pericycle; *co* Conjunctive tissue; *ph* Phloem; *g* Cambium; *x* Xylem; *c* Dermatogen of rootlet; *p* its pericycle; *pl* its pericycle. After Van Tieghem. $\times 250$

by a kind of digestive process the cells of the cortex of the main root as it advances

If the stele contains more than two xylem bundles, usually a row of lateral rootlets arises at the back of each. If only two are present there are generally four rows of rootlets which are placed in pairs, one a little on either side of each xylem mass. In the Grasses and a few other Monocotyledons they arise opposite to the phloem bundles, as they do also in some Dicotyledons, where a resin-duct lies in the pericycle behind each xylem bundle.

In most Vascular Cryptogams the meristem of the apex is characterised by the presence of an apical cell (*fig 769, v*). This has the shape of a four-sided pyramid, the base facing outwards. From each face in succession segments are cut off, which by subsequent

FIG 769.

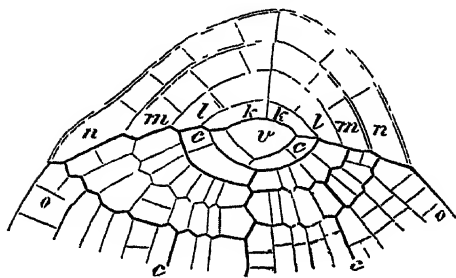


Fig 769 Longitudinal section through root of *Pteris hastata*, showing apical region. *v* Apical cell, from which are developed the tissue of the substance of the root, *o*, *c*, and the root cap, *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*. After Sachs

divisions give rise to the tissue of the root. After each division the apical cell grows to its original size before cutting off the next segment. The segment parallel to the base of the pyramid originates the root cap, which in this, as in the former cases mentioned, is a many-layered epidermis. The dermatogen here does not produce any part of the covering of the root, which is com-

posed of the outer layer of the cortex. The segments cut off from the other faces of the apical cell divide by anticlinal and periclinal walls, forming a mass of tissue in which soon the limits of periblem and plerome are apparent. The innermost layer of the former forms the endodermis, the outermost layer of the latter, the pericycle, except in certain cases already mentioned (pages 332 and 339), in which this layer is not differentiated. Instead, the endodermis is composed of two layers.

The lateral roots in the Vascular Cryptogams do not originate in the pericycle, but in the endodermis. A cell of the latter, which is opposite to a xylem bundle of the main root, cuts out of itself,

by four successive divisions, an apical cell which gives rise to the tissue of the lateral root. The latter bores its way through the cortex of the primary root in the way already described. The pericycle takes no part in the formation except to contribute the cells which connect the vessels of the lateral with those of the primary root.

In the *Lycopodiaceæ* no lateral roots are produced, the branching of the main root is always dichotomous, the growing point dividing into two equal ones.

When adventitious roots are formed from the stem, they usually originate in the same way as the normal lateral roots in the Cryptogams from the endodermis, in the Phanerogams from the pericycle, as already described. In a few rare cases they arise exogenously like the branches of the stem. This occurs when they are developed in connection with adventitious buds. The so-called haustoria, or sucking roots of parasitic Phanerogams, are developed from the pericycle.

The stem and root forming together the axis of the plant, the tissues of the one are continuous with those of the other. The structure is, as we have seen, different in the two parts. Between them there is therefore a region in which the arrangement of the tissues of the one gradually changes into that of the other. This is in the so-called hypocotyledonary portion of the axis, or the part lying between the root and the insertion of the cotyledons. In Dicotyledons and Gymnosperms the epidermis of the stem is continuous with the piliferous layer, which we have seen is generally the inner layer of the dermatogen, the outer layer of which forms the only true epidermal portion of the root, the root-cap. In Monocotyledons and Cryptogams the epidermis of the stem is at first continuous with the epidermis of the root. The latter, however, soon separates and exfoliates with the layers of the root-cap, leaving the external layer of the pericycle naked. The latter becomes the piliferous layer.

The endodermis and pericycle of the two regions pass directly into each other, and the intermediate cortical tissues are similarly continuous.

The vascular bundles of the root become continuous with those of the stem, but the two constituents change their positions considerably.

In the commonest case each of the xylem bundles of the root divides into two, and the separate halves diverge to the right and left, twisting as they proceed, till the protoxylem, at first on the outer face, becomes internal. The phloem bundles also bifurcate

and diverge, as do the xylem ones, passing gradually a little towards the exterior. Soon the left strand of a phloem bundle is found to be exactly behind the right strand of a xylem bundle, the two forming thus an ordinary collateral bundle which passes perpendicularly up the stem. The xylem and phloem bundles of the stem are thus twice as numerous as those of the root, though by the fusion of the separate strands of bast and wood the number of collateral bundles of the former corresponds with the number of separate bundles of the latter. The phloem strands do not twist in their course, so that the protophloem remains external.

Less frequently the phloem bundles pass straight up into the stem without branching. The xylem bundles branch, diverge and twist as in the former case. The right and left halves of two contiguous xylem bundles meet in front of the continuation upwards of the phloem bundle originally between them, fuse, and become the xylem portion of the conjoint bundle.

In a third case the xylem bundles do not branch, but as they pass upwards twist as before through an angle of 180° . The phloem bundles branch and diverge, the halves of two contiguous ones fusing together behind a xylem bundle and uniting with it to form the conjoint bundle.

In some plants, particularly among the *Rosaceæ*, the roots give rise to adventitious buds. Instead of these being exogenous, as when they spring from the stem, they originate deep in the tissue. They are derived from the pericycle like the lateral roots, and bore their way out in the same way as the latter. *Linaria* offers an exception to this mode of origin, as its radical buds arise from the epidermis.

CHAPTER VI

THE STRUCTURE OF THE LEAF

THE leaf, or phyllopodium, arises as a little outgrowth from the stem in close proximity to the growing point (*fig. 770, l*). It varies in its mode of origination according to the mode of formation of the meristem of the axis, if the latter has an apical cell, the leaf is similarly constructed; if there is a small-celled meristem in the stem, the leaf also has no apical cell. The tissue of the leaf thus arises from the dermatogen and the periblem, both of which produce a number of cells causing the projection. In further development the dermatogen gives rise to the epidermis, and the periblem to the internal tissue, the pterome of the stem taking no part in its formation.

Like the stem the phyllopodium may be monostelic or polystelic. In either case the meristemes or separate steles of the leaf become united with the stele or steles of the axis by changes in the cells of the periblem which lie between the axial stele and the insertion of the leaf. The endodermis and the pericycle of the two members are also continuous with each other. As the leaf grows, it assumes the shapes already described by variations in the distribution of growth, part or all of the projection becoming flattened or winged. Usually, the three regions described as hypopodium,

FIG 770

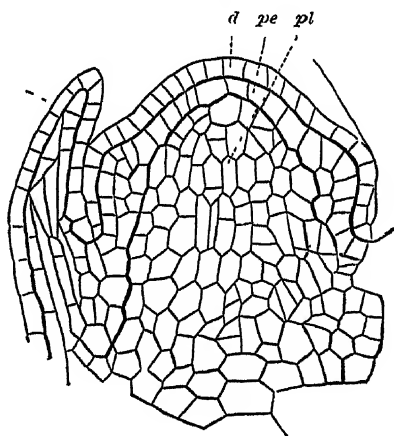


FIG 770 Growing point of the stem of a Dicotyledon After Douliot
d Dermatogen
pe Periblem
pl Pterome
l Young leaf

mesopodium, and epipodium become separately recognisable. The growth is for a time apical, but this soon ceases, except in Ferns, and the further development is caused by basal or intercalary growth.

The structure of the axis of the leaf differs materially from that of the winged outgrowths from it. In the epipodium the wings are usually much greater in extent than the axis which bears them, so that the structure of the latter is soon lost, and the leaf-blade when seen in section comes to appear altogether different from the rest of the phyllopodium.

The Mesopodium or Petiole.—The axis of the phyllopodium is most readily examined in the intermediate region, or petiole, which seldom becomes winged. A section in this region has a somewhat flattened or slightly concave upper surface and a

FIG 771

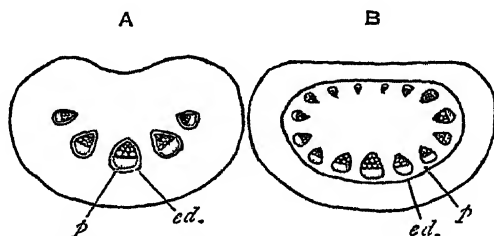


Fig 771 Sections of two types of phyllopodium. In A the bundles are arranged separately, each having its own endodermis *ed.* and pericycle, *p*. In B they are arranged in a ring in the mesopodium with a common endodermis and pericycle. After Van Tieghem.

larger convex lower face (*fig.* 772). The same regions can be distinguished as in the stem, viz an epidermis, a cortex, and a certain amount of stelar tissue.

The epidermis is similar to that of the stem: its cells are sometimes prolonged into hairs; generally stomata are present. The cortex is usually composed of elongated parenchymatous cells with numerous intercellular spaces. Chlorophyll grains are present in the external layers. The tissue is often found to contain hypodermal layers of collenchyma or sclerenchyma, which may be continuous with similar layers in the stem or may be peculiar to the petiole.

In a few leaves, *e.g.* those of *Iloya carnosa*, the petiole contains a layer of cork throughout its length, a little below the epidermis.

If the stem be polystelic in its arrangement, the leaf may receive one or more complete steles from it. Each has then the same structure as that of the axial steles, possessing a pericycle and surrounded by an endodermis continuous with those of the stem. If the stem be monostelic, each leaf receives a branch of the stele, which is termed a *meristele*. The vascular bundles in this may be surrounded by a general endodermis and pericycle, or the meristele may separate in a schizostelic manner into a number of strands, each composed of a single

FIG 772

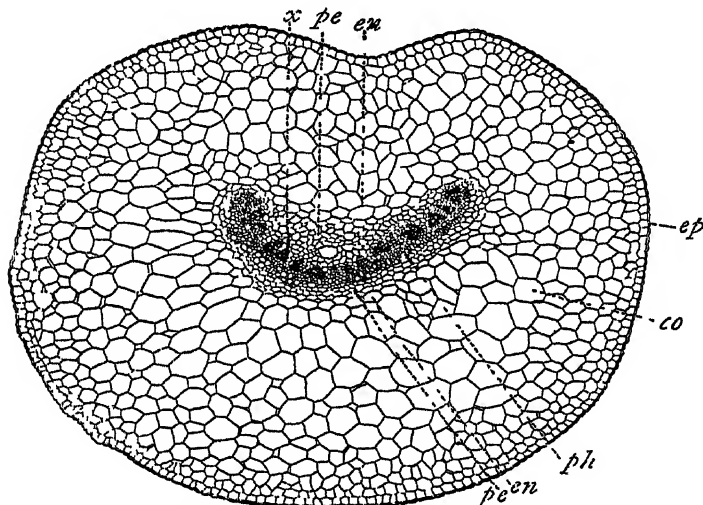


Fig 772 Mesopodium (petiole) of *Primula* ep Epidermis co Cortex
en Endodermis pe Pericycle ph Phloem x Xylem

vascular bundle with endodermis and pericycle enclosing it (fig 771, A). In either case the pericycle very frequently contains a good deal of sclerenchyma, forming strands behind or in front of the bundles. Rarely schizostelic structure is found in the petiole of a polystelic stem, as in *Auricula*.

We may find different modes of arrangement of the bundles in the meristele. In the first and most common case they do not form a complete ring, but are not closed towards the upper surface. The separate bundles have their bast towards the lower, and wood towards the upper, face of the petiole. They have a common endodermis and pericycle. In the second case

there is a complete ring, but the bundles are much smaller on its upper side (*fig* 771, B). In this case the orientation is similar to that of the stem, the wood being nearest the centre of the circle, and its development centrifugal.

The composition of the bundles is the same as that in the stem from which the leaf proceeds, being collateral, bicollateral, or concentric.

In the petioles of the Cycads the orientation of the bundles differs from that of the stem, the protoxylem of the former being near the exterior, so that the differentiation of the primary wood is mainly, though not completely, centripetal.

Secondary thickening is very rare in the phyllopodium: it does occur, however, in a few families, owing to the persistence of a cambium layer in the usual position in the bundles. The formation of secondary vascular tissue is but slight, and ceases when the leaf has reached its full size. It is less in the limb than in the petiole.

The petiole in deciduous leaves is the seat of a merismatic formation which leads to the separation of the leaf from the stem. A layer of cells extending completely across the phyllopodium, usually exactly at the base of the leaf-stalk, divides several times so as to form a thin sheet of delicate thin-walled cells, and by the absorption of the middle layer of the sheet the two parts become separated and the leaf is cut off. The ruptured surface becomes covered with a layer of cork.

The Leaf-blade.—When the epipodium of the leaf remains unbranched, it is continuous in a straight line with the petiole if the latter be present. The central axis of the leaf-blade much resembles the petiole, but is rather more flattened. Its lateral margins are continued outwards as a winged expansion. The continuation forwards of the petiole constitutes the midrib, and, as might be expected, the structure of the two is essentially similar (compare *figs* 772 and 773).

The epidermal and cortical tissues are continued onwards from the one to the other without any break, and if the petiole contains bands of collenchyma or sclerenchyma these are found in the midrib also. The vascular bundles send out branches into the wings, the distribution of which varies with the dimensions of the latter.

If the epipodium is branched, the branches may remain distinct or their wings may be fused together to a very variable extent. The secondary axes are generally distinguishable as ribs much like the midrib. If the branching is cymose, there is

no main midrib, but a variable number springs from the junction of petiole and blade. As before these have a very similar structure to that of the petiole.

As the termination of the main axis or any of its branches is approached, the axial character becomes less and less conspicuous, till it is indistinguishable from that of the wings with which it is continuous. Where the fusion of the wings has taken place, the vascular bundles from the different axes frequently anastomose with each other, forming a complicated network in which the bundles terminate either separately or in the form of a meshwork.

The transition from the structure of the petiole is thus a gradual one, the successive axes becoming more and more flattened till they lose altogether their cylindrical character. The epidermis is continuous over the whole surface, and is not much altered; the cortex peculiar to the axis becomes gradually replaced by that peculiar to the flattened wings, the vascular elements are gradually attenuated till only a few tracheids remain conjoined with

a limited amount of soft tissue, continuous with the bast. The endodermis of the steles or meristeles can often be traced forwards almost or quite to the termination of the bundles.

The character of the fibro-vascular bundles usually remains unchanged, in most Ferns, however, the originally concentric bundle loses the bast upon its upper face, and so becomes collateral.

The leaf-blade so constructed shows an epidermis which is continuous with that of the petiole, and which extends over the

FIG. 773

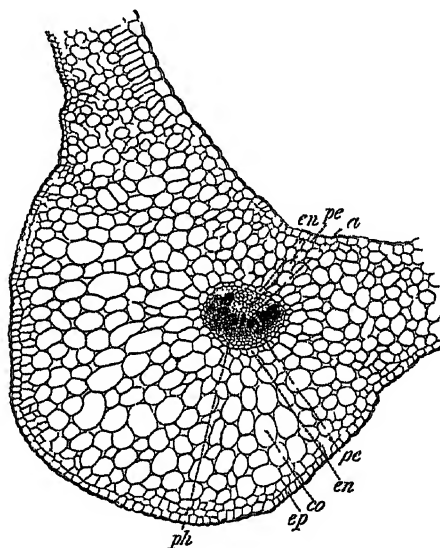


Fig. 773 Section of midrib of leaf of *Primula*
ep Epidermis *co* Cortex *en* Endodermis
pe Pericycle *ph* Phloem *x* Xylem

whole of its surface. It is usually only one layer of cells thick, the cells are somewhat brick-shaped on section, and have their outer walls generally cuticularised to a greater or less extent. In thick coriaceous leaves the outer layer of the cell-walls of the epidermis can often be stripped off in a continuous layer, known as the cuticle (*fig. 774*). In some leaves the epidermal cells divide by walls parallel to the surface, and the epidermis becomes composed of several layers of cells (*fig 775*). Viewed from the surface the epidermal cells are sometimes square or oblong, sometimes much sinuated in shape. Generally in the higher plants the cells of the epidermis contain little more than water, in some plants, especially in the Ferns, chloroplastids are present

FIG 774

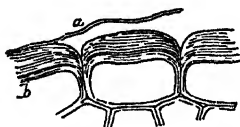


FIG 775.

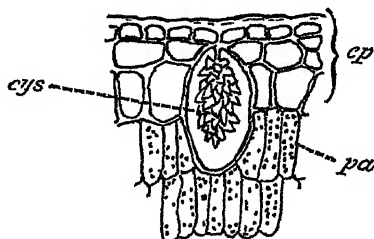


Fig 774 Vertical section of the epidermis of *Houttuynia cordata* treated with caustic potash. *a* The detached cuticle. *b* The thickened cuticularised layers of the outer walls of the epidermal cells. After Mohl — *Fig 775* Three-layered epidermis of leaf of *Ficus elastica*

In aquatic plants the external walls of the epidermal cells are not cuticularised

The epidermis in all the higher plants is furnished with stomata, which are variously disposed. In the leaves of soft herbaceous plants these openings are present on both surfaces of the leaf, those of hard woody plants have them generally only on the lower face, in submerged leaves there are none; in floating leaves they are confined to the upper surface.

In many leaves water stomata are present. These remain permanently open, in some, again, there are openings between the cells, which can hardly be described as stomata. These irregular openings, like the true water stomata, serve for the emission of drops of water.

In some leaves, as in the Oleander (*Nerium oleander*) and

Banksia, the stomata are seated in pit-like depressions on the under surface (fig 776).

The cells of the epidermis when the latter is many-layered sometimes contain the cystoliths already described (fig 775).

Within the epidermis of the winged portions of the phyllodium is the *mesophyll* of the leaf. This is variously arranged, giving three main types of structure, known respectively as the *centric*, the *dorsi-ventral*, and the *iso-bilateral* of these the second is the commonest form (fig. 777). It has derived its name from the fact that the tissue is of different character towards the upper and lower surfaces. Immediately under the upper epidermis the cells are oblong, and are arranged with their longest diameter at right angles to the surface of the leaf, constituting the so-called *palisade parenchyma*. The cells contain large numbers of chloroplastids or chlorophyll grains. Sometimes there is only a single layer of these cells, but often there are several. The cells are arranged close together, and have relatively few intercellular spaces among them.

The lower half of the mesophyll is made up of the so-called *spongy parenchyma*. The cells are of irregular shape, and are arranged often so as to be in contact only at portions of their surfaces, so that the tissue is much less dense, and large intercellular spaces or lacunæ are present: there is always a conspicuous lacuna under each stoma.

The cells of the spongy parenchyma, like those of the palisade tissue, contain chloroplastids, but these are relatively less numerous, causing the under side of dorsi-ventral leaves to appear, usually, a lighter green than the upper side. In Ferns the differentiation of the mesophyll into these two layers is very feebly marked. The vascular bundles are disposed between the two layers of the mesophyll.

In the iso-bilateral type there are two layers of palisade parenchyma, one on each face. The spongy mesophyll is much less conspicuous, and occupies the space between them. These

FIG 776

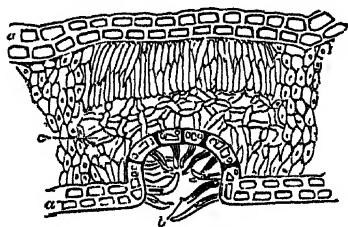


FIG 776 Vertical section through the leaf of a *Banksia*. a, a Epidermis, b Spongy parenchyma, c Hairs which are contained in little depressions on the under surface of the leaf, and at whose base peculiar stomata are found. After Schleiden.

leaves are frequently supplied with bands of sclerenchyma, which extend from the epidermis inwards, forming often a thick sheath round the bundles, and reaching from one epidermis to the other.

FIG 777

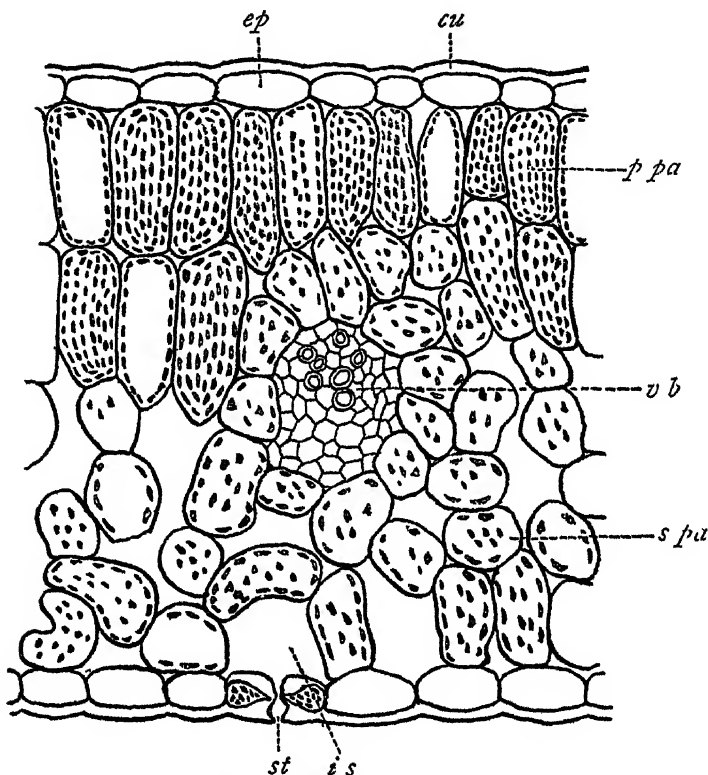


Fig 777 Section of leaf blade of *Beta vulgaris* $\times 300$ *ep* Epidermis
p pa Palisade parenchyma *v b* Vascular bundle, the xylem being upper-
 most *s pa* Spongy parenchyma *st* Stoma in the lower epidermis.
i s Intercellular space communicating with stoma

In the contric leaf there is not much differentiation of the mesophyll, but the internal tissue is more or less homogeneous. This type is generally found in succulent leaves, like those of

Ciassula The cells are usually elongated like those of palisade parenchyma, and have between them narrow intercellular spaces. The chlorophyll is most abundant in the outer layers. Frequently tannin sacs are present. The cells are all very turgid, from the presence of water. A particular form of the centric leaf is found in the Conifers. These are somewhat awl-shaped, and in section appear plano-convex (*fig* 778). The epidermis is thick-walled and has stomata on all its surfaces, the guard-cells of the latter being usually depressed below the surface. The

FIG 778

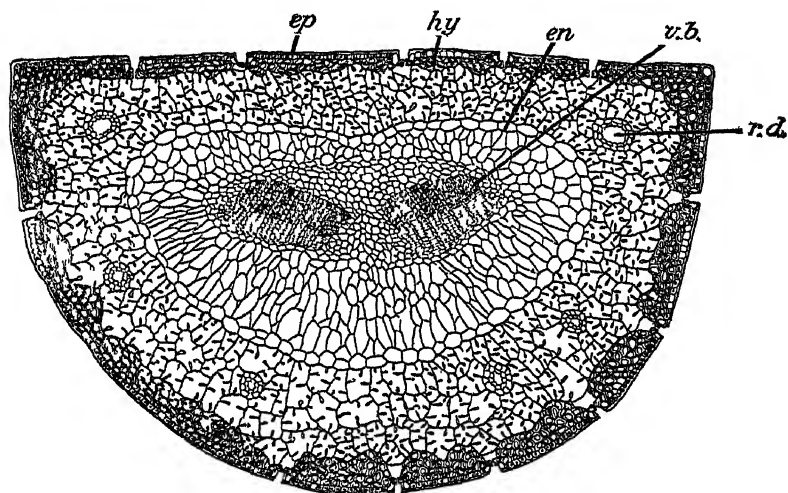


Fig 778 Centric leaf of *Pinus* ep Epidermis hy Hypodermis en Endodermis v.b Vascular bundle r.d Resin-duct

mesophyll contains a layer of sclerenchyma on its exterior, which at the margins of the leaf consists of a number of cells filling up the angle of the section. The other cells of the mesophyll are sinuous in outline, and their walls show curious infoldings of cellulose. They contain the chloroplastids. In the centre is a well-marked endodermis enclosing a many-layered pericycle and usually two vascular bundles. These are exceptional in containing a layer of cambium between the wood and the bast. The pericycle is also peculiar. it contains a

number of tracheids which abut upon the xylem, and serve to convey water from the latter to the mesophyll of the leaf. They are spoken of as *transfusion* tissue. The phloem is in contact with a number of cells containing a somewhat dense protoplasm. Besides these a band of sclerenchymatous fibres is found at the back of the phloem.

The mesophyll of the leaves of the Conifers contains also a variable number of resin-ducts of similar structure to those of the stem.

The vascular bundles of the leaf-blade, as we have seen, are the continuations of those of the axis of the phyllopodium. If the axis is monostelic or polystelic, as the ramifications proceed, the bundles ultimately become isolated, and the blade is therefore astelic. Outside the steles or the separate bundles, traceable for a varying distance, is often a band of sclerenchyma or collenchyma, extending in the main ribs to the epidermis of the lower surface. As the bundles are traced further and further from the axis they get thinner and thinner, gradually losing the distinctive characters of their woody and bast elements. The woody part persists furthest, and ultimately consists only of a few tracheids. They end generally in plexuses, or with free terminations among the mesophyll parenchyma. In some cases a peculiar structure, known as a *water-gland*, lies in the mesophyll between the epidermis and the end of the bundle. These bodies consist of a mass of small cells with thin walls, usually covered by a sheath which is continuous with the endodermis of the bundle. The tracheids of the bundle terminate abruptly at the lower end of the gland. One or more water stomata pierce the epidermis over the latter. Sometimes a water-gland is found above a mass of tracheids formed by the fusion of several bundles.

In certain leaves, especially the bud scales of the Conifers and those of the Horsechestnut, there is usually a layer of cork underlying the epidermis. The formation of cork is, however, very rare in leaves.

The structure of the outer floral leaves differs but slightly from that of the foliage leaves described. Bracts and sepals are only very little modified, the chief difference being the general absence of sclerenchyma. The upper as well as the lower epidermis, as a rule, contains stomata. When the sepals are fused to form a gamosepalous calyx, sometimes the fibro-vascular bundles of the separate leaves anastomose freely, sometimes they remain independent.

The petals are generally more altered, the epidermis is often papillose and its cells filled with various colouring matters. There is no differentiation of the mesophyll into palisade and spongy parenchyma, and the vascular bundles are much reduced.

The structure of the sporophylls will be best discussed in the succeeding section.

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